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ABSTRACT

This study evaluated the effectiveness of a beginning teacher supervision program conducted by the Department of Agricultural and Extension Education at Pennsylvania State University. Specifically, it analyzed differences between a group of 23 vocational agriculture teachers who participated in the beginning teacher supervision program that used the Developmental Supervision Model proposed by Glickman (1981) to work with beginning teachers of vocational agriculture in Pennsylvania. It involved university-based supervisors working in teachers' classrooms in an attempt to improve teaching clarity and job satisfaction. Using a non-equivalent control group design, criteria for evaluation were adjusted post-treatment scores on the Brayfield Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction and adjusted post-treatment scores on a teaching clarity index developed for the project. Factors analyzed were the main effect of treatment level and its possible interactive effects with participation in school induction programs and years of teaching experience. Results of the multivariate analysis of variance produced no evidence to conclude that scores on either index differed significantly between treatment group and comparison group. There was also no evidence to suggest that years of teaching experience or participation in school induction programs had any interactive effect with treatment level upon job satisfaction or teaching clarity. A four-page bibliography is included; teacher concerns questionnaire, job satisfaction survey, student questionnaire, and sample teacher concerns profiles are appended. (Author/KC)

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AN EVALUATION OF THE BEGINNING TEACHER SUPERVISION PROGRAM CONDUCTED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL AND EXTENSION EDUCATION AT THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE UNIVERSITY

FINAL REPORT
CONTRACT NO. 83-5002
DIVISION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION
PENNSYLVANIA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

RANDOL G. WATERS, PROJECT DIRECTOR

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL
AND EXTENSION EDUCATION
THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE UNIVERSITY
UNIVERSITY PARK, PA 16802

OCTOBER 1985

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PREFACE

This report of a funded project is part of a continuing effort by the Department of Agricultural and Extension Education at the Pennsylvania State University to provide support to the beginning teachers of vocational agriculture in Pennsylvania.

Appreciation is extended to Dr. Dennis Scanlon, assistant professor, for his assistance in conducting the project. Thanks are extended to all of the beginning teacher supervisors and other staff in the Department of Agricultural and Extension Education for their assistance.

Randol G. Waters
Project Director

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The activity which is the subject of this report was supported in part by the Bureau of Vocational Education, Pennsylvania Department of Education, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania. However, the opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the Bureau of Vocational Education and no official endorsement by the Bureau of Vocational Education should be inferred.

ABSTRACT

The study evaluated the effectiveness of a beginning teacher supervision program conducted by the Department of Agricultural and Extension Education at The Pennsylvania State University. Specifically, it analyzed differences between a group of 23 vocational agriculture teachers who participated in the beginning teacher program and a similar group of 35 vocational agriculture teachers who did not participate in the program.

The program evaluated was an individual teacher supervision program which used the Developmental Supervision Model proposed by Glickman (1981) to work with beginning teachers of vocational agriculture in Pennsylvania. It involved University-based supervisors working in teachers' classrooms in an attempt to improve teaching clarity and job satisfaction.

The study used a quasi-experimental, Nonequivalent Control Group design. Criteria for evaluation were adjusted post-treatment scores on the Brayfield Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction and adjusted post-treatment scores on a Teaching Clarity Index developed by the researcher. The main effect of treatment level and its possible interactive effects with participation in school induction programs and years of teaching experience were factors which were analyzed in the study.

Results of the multivariate analysis of variance produced no evidence to conclude that scores on either index differed significantly between treatment group and comparison group. There was also no evidence to suggest that years of teaching experience or participation in school induction programs had any interactive effect with treatment level upon job satisfaction or teaching clarity.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A national concern currently exists regarding the qualifications of new teachers. The National Commission on Excellence in Education suggested that new teachers are not as well qualified as those who have come before them (Gardner, 1983). Low salaries, reduced status for teachers, and limited preparation in subject matter courses have produced a generation of teachers who may need "more formal assistance than has heretofore been provided" (Griffin et al., 1983).

State departments of education, universities, and local school districts alike are currently "gearing up" to help beginning teachers meet the challenges of successfully completing the first years of teaching. State departments of education are formulating policies regarding how beginning teachers are to be assessed and/or assisted by local educational administrators. Approaches to these policies vary from "precisely stated expectations for teaching behavior to more broadly conceptualized ways that new teachers can be helped to become competent" (Griffin et al., 1983, p. 2). These policies are to be implemented at the local level by school administrators to assure that a qualified teaching force will be maintained.

Teacher education departments at universities and colleges also are designing postgraduate follow-up programs for many of their own graduates (deVoss & DiBella, 1981; Broadbent & Cruickshank, 1965; Elias et al., 1980; Andrews Associates, 1983). With the cooperation of state education agencies, through program grants and special funding, teacher educators are beginning to devote more individual time to helping beginning

teachers perform more adequately in the classroom. Recognized educational authorities such as David Berliner (in Brandt, 1982), Carl Glickman (1981) and numerous others have suggested that teacher educators can be much more successful in their quest to supply a quality teaching force for America's schools if they will simply devote a larger amount of their time and resources to individually supervising beginning teachers in their local school classrooms.

Along with these beginning teacher follow-up programs comes the need for program coordination and evaluation. As new support programs for beginning teachers are developed, every effort must be made to integrate appropriate evaluative stages and plans for revising and improving programs which are not having impact upon the clientele.

Beginning teacher programs, which involve such costly procedures as individual supervision and extensive travel to and from the local school districts by teacher educators and state department supervisors, must be proven effective in order to justify their existence. Programs which appear to be having no significant effect upon clientele must be redirected or discontinued in order to most efficiently utilize the limited supply of funds allocated for helping beginning teachers.

Description of the Total Departmental Program

For the past ten years the Department of Agricultural and Extension Education at The Pennsylvania State University has been involved in the induction of beginning vocational agriculture teachers into their professional roles. With financial assistance from the Bureau of Vocational Education in Harrisburg, the Department has been working with beginning teachers during their first two to three years of teaching. A review of

end-of-project reports produced a record of various program components. Numerous two- and three-day conferences have been conducted by the Department for beginning teachers; teachers have participated in special off-campus courses directed toward solving problems specifically associated with starting into the teaching profession; and, most importantly, teachers also have been supervised in their classrooms by either University-based supervisors, master teachers of vocational agriculture, or one of the area consultants employed by the Bureau of Vocational Education. Basically, the programs have been planned on a year-to-year basis in an effort to utilize personnel and other resources as efficiently as possible (Stevens & Hoover, 1975; Zubler & Stevens, 1976; Zubler et al., 1977; Curtis & Martin, 1979; Martin, 1982). Although the work previously described has been viewed as successful, department faculty wanted greater involvement in the program and a greater emphasis upon in-class supervision.

Why Individual Teacher Supervision?

Based upon a review of literature concerning teachers' attitudes toward supervision and their part in the supervision/decision-making process (see Chapter II), it was concluded that the best way to meet the needs of participants in this program was to work with them individually in their local school classrooms. The Bureau of Vocational Education heartily endorsed such an expansion, since a reduction in the Bureau's own personnel no longer made it possible for state department field staff to provide instructional supervision on a regular basis.

A number of faculty in the Department were familiar with the clinical models of supervision suggested by Goldhammer et al. (1980) and Cogan (1973), and it was initially decided that one of these models would

be the most logical to follow in supervising the beginning teachers. Clinical supervision as described by Cogan is:

> ...the rationale and practice designed to improve the teacher's classroom performance. It takes its principal data from the events of the classroom. The analysis of the data and the relationship between teacher and supervisor form the basis of the program, procedures, and strategies designed to improve the students' learning by improving the teacher's classroom behavior. (p. 9)

Goldhammer et al. (1980) and Cogan (1973) each described very similar step-by-step methods of using the clinical supervision model to bring about changes in teacher behavior. The methods involve conducting (1) a pre-observation conference with the teacher to obtain information concerning the teacher's intended outcome of a lesson; (2) an observation session in order for the supervisor to view the lesson laid out by the teacher in the pre-observation conference; (3) an analysis and strategy session which helps the supervisor "reconstruct" the observed events; (4) a supervision conference with the teacher which provides feedback, and mutually agreed upon strategies for change; and finally, (5) a post conference analysis which allows for clear understanding on behalf of supervisor and teacher as to what took place and what is expected or anticipated during the next cycle of the clinical supervision model.

The decision to use a clinical model of supervision gave the faculty the needed framework to try and help the teachers improve their performance in the classroom, but the supervision model did not provide a means whereby teachers could obtain the 24 credits needed for permanent certification to teach vocational agriculture. There was a concern for the importance of developing a supervision program which did not make the teacher feel intimidated by the supervisor. At the same time, however, there was a need to develop a second part of the program which allowed

the teacher to receive a minimum of 24 credits of coursework in order to meet state department certification requirements.

Although the clinical model was chosen as the initial means of supervision, early experience led supervisors to agree that some teachers were not able to benefit from clinical supervision. Use of the clinical model calls for a formal exchange between teacher and supervisor in an attempt to mutually establish goals and objectives for teaching improvement. The supervisors found that many young teachers were not yet capable of abstractly removing themselves from their own classroom setting and critically analyzing their teaching performance. This finding is strongly supported by the work conducted by Francis Fuller and her associates (Fuller, 1969; Fuller & Bown, 1975). Fuller found that young teachers go through three clearly defined phases as they are inducted into their roles as teachers. She labeled these Self, Task, and Impact Concerns phases, respectively.

Fuller found, as did the beginning teacher supervisors in the Department, that teachers in the early phases of development are not ready to critique their own performance. The primary concern of teachers in the earliest phase of induction is self survival. These teachers want to improve their performance but generally lack the ability to observe needed changes. As a result they look to their supervisors for direction and leadership. Use of the clinical model during this phase is thought to be less than effective. It is not until later, after the young teachers have had some measurable successes in the classroom, that they are ready to deal with their problems clinically with the aid of a trained clinical supervisor. Therefore, the supervisors attempted to first identify the phase of concerns each teacher was in, using an

instrument developed by George (1978) for that purpose. The supervisors then used a developmental model of supervision proposed by Glickman (1981) which matched supervision style to the needs of the individual teacher. A better description of this "developmental model" of supervision follows.

Again, there was to be no letter grade associated with the supervision component of the beginning teacher program. The primary purpose of the individual supervision was to help teachers identify alternative strategies which might lead to better classroom performance. A secondary purpose of the individual teacher supervision component was to identify mutually agreed-upon areas where additional work might help the teachers become more technically competent or pedagogically proficient. The staff at the University developed a number of self-instructional packages which were intended to help teachers improve in the areas of program planning, curriculum design, lesson planning, youth group advising, and other areas where anticipated problems might occur. These materials, along with a limited number of inservice courses and a special three-week summer session at University Park (emphasizing technical agriculture subject competence), were offered to those who chose to become certificated through the program. (The three-week summer session was offered because most vocational agriculture instructors were 12-month employees in their districts and could not attend a full summer session.)

The resulting comprehensive program allowed a beginning teacher to develop a plan which led toward permanent certification at the end of a minimum of three years. See Figure 1 for a description of the first year component of the beginning teacher program. It should be noted that

although Figure 1 describes what was intended to be a "typical" first year of participation in the program, there was considerable variation in the actual level of participation in the total beginning teacher program by each teacher. For example, less than one-fourth of the participants completed any of the modules of instruction referred to in Figure 1. Most of the program participants participated in at least one of the inservice courses and/or workshops designed for the beginning teachers but very few attended all of them. Since the time frame for conducting the study was one school year, program participants had not yet participated in any of the 1985 special three-week summer program courses at University Park. The only part of the program common to all participants was the individual supervision component. Each teacher was visited in his/her classroom by a University supervisor during the school year.

Year	Activity	Credits Earned
Year 1	a) enroll in the first year beginning teacher program	
	b) complete two modules of self instruction	2
	c) enroll in one inservice course or workshop at one of the centers during the school year	1
	d) enroll in the special three-week summer program at University Park	4-5
	Total	7-8

Figure 1. A Typical Beginning Teacher Program.

The number of visits per teacher ranged from a minimum of two to a maximum of six. The number of visits to each individual teacher was somewhat dependent upon the number of previous years of teaching experience he/she had. Supervisors believed that younger, less experienced teachers should be supervised more closely than teachers having one or two years of prior experience in the classroom.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of the individual teacher supervison component of the beginning teacher program conducted by the Department of Agricultural and Extension Education at The Pennsylvania State University. The total program was designed to help beginning teachers become successful teachers of vocational agriculture. To evaluate the individual teacher supervision component of the beginning teacher program, data were gathered and analyzed as they pertained to teachers participating in the program and to a similiar group of teachers who did not participate in the program. Specifically, the study was designed to observe and describe differences between participants and non-participants in the program as they related to job satisfaction (as measured by the Brayfield and Rothe Index of Job Satisfaction) and teaching clarity (as measured by an instrument developed by the researcher based upon previous research conducted by Donald Cruickshank and his associates (1975, 1978).

Implications and Educational Significance of the Study

In evaluating the effectiveness of the supervision component of the beginning teacher program, the aim of the present study was to go beyond process evaluation into the area of program impact upon clientele. If

the evaluation results indicated significant directional differences between program participants and non-participants with regard to the previously mentioned variables, the program should be recognized as successful and worth continuing. Further, if instrumentation designed for the purpose of the study proved to be valid and reliable, new tools for assessing the impact of beginning teacher programs upon clientele will have been developed. If acceptable reliability and validity data are gathered to support their continued use, these instruments may be used for the same purpose with similar programs operating under similar conditions.

Operational Definitions

In order to fully explain the nature and purpose of this study, the following operational terms have been defined.

Beginning Teacher: A teacher who has been teaching in the public schools for three years or less, and who is not permanently certificated (or tenured) to teach.

Beginning Teacher Program: A program developed and conducted by the Department of Agricultural and Extension Education for the purpose of inducting new and beginning teachers of vocational agriculture into their roles as teachers in Pennsylvania school systems.

Clinical Supervision: A method of supervising teachers which requires a collaborative effort on behalf of both teacher and supervisor in order to bring about improvement in mutually-agreed-upon areas of the instructional process.

Comparison Group: Vocational agriculture teachers with similar educational backgrounds and teaching experiences to those in the treatment group, but who had not previously, or currently, been participating

in any form of beginning teacher program sponsored by a teacher education department in any college or university.

Developmental Supervision Model: A supervision strategy proposed by Glickman which endorses the matching of specific supervision styles to the individual needs of teachers.

Job Satisfaction Index: An 18-item index developed by Brayfield and Rothe which proposes to measure "general job satisfaction."

Master Teacher: A teacher who possesses traits which qualify him/her to be classified as an exemplary teacher capable of being used as a role model for beginning teachers.

School Induction Program Index: A two-part, 17-item index developed by Waters which proposes to identify (1) the number of induction activities conducted by local school districts, and (2) the teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of those activities which were conducted.

School-Sponsored Induction Program. Program which is sponsored by either the local school or school district for purposes of helping beginning teachers become more effective in the performance of their job.

Teacher Concerns Questionnaire: A questionnaire developed by George containing three 5-item indices proposing to measure Self, Task, and Impact Concerns as they relate to the concerns theory developed by Fuller in her research with beginning teachers.

Teaching Clarity Index: A 21-item index developed by Waters proposing to measure "teaching clarity" as described by Cruickshank in his research with teacher effectiveness.

Treatment Group: Vocational agriculture teachers who participated in the beginning teacher program sponsored by the Department of Agricultural and Extension Education at The Pennsylvania State University.

University Supervisor: A teacher educator in the Department of Agricultural and Extension Education at The Pennsylvania State University who was assigned one or more beginning teachers to supervise in the field.

CHAPTER II

A RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY AS DEVELOPED THROUGH A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Elaboration of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the supervision component of the beginning teacher program conducted by the Department of Agricultural and Extension Education at The Pennsylvania State University. The aims of the supervision program were to help teachers improve classroom performance and keep competent teachers in the profession by giving individual attention and supervision to teachers desiring to improve their classroom teaching ability. There was a concern, based upon current literature (Gardner, 1983; Griffin et al., 1983) that the current beginning teachers of vocational agriculture may need more formal assistance than teachers who graduated in earlier years. Students choosing vocational agricultural education as a profession were entering into preparation for their career with less agricultural experience and practical knowledge. McCoy (1983) found that seventy percent of incoming freshmen in the College of Agriculture at Penn State had no previous agricultural experience. Teachers were graduating from a four-year program with, at best, a "minimum" of practical experience that most vocational agriculture teachers previously would have been expected to have.

The faculty in the Department was also concerned that lack of agricultural experience and frustrations associated with teaching may cause "good" teachers to choose other professions after completing several years of teaching. A recent study of Pennsylvania vocational agriculture teachers showed that nearly one third of the 320 teachers in

Pennsylvania had less than five years of experience. Only 19 percent of the teachers have taught 20 or more years (Curtis, 1985). "Teachers in the 0-5 years of experience range were identified as most likely to leave the profession" (p. 1).

With this information in mind, the faculty developed a comprehensive program to assist teachers in their first few years of teaching in an effort to overcome some of the previously mentioned problems. Early in planning the program, it was decided that an individual approach to supervision would be most appropriate for the teacher, since there were differing levels of need for both technical and pedagogical inservicing. The program (as described in Chapter I) was conducted by a group of nine University-based supervisors. Six of the supervisiors were full-time faculty members and teacher educators in the Department and three were Ph.D. candidates in the Department with a number of years of successful vocational agricultural teaching experience to their credit.

During early September, teachers participating in the program were to complete the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire developed by George (1978). Data from this instrument were to be used to develop individual "teacher concerns profiles" which, along with pre-test assessment of job satisfaction and teaching clarity, provided University supervisors an indication of supervision strategies and possible areas of concentration for supervision visits (see Appendix C for a sample profile).

Supervisors were then to make their visits to teachers as needed. Since there were nine supervisors working with the teachers, it was decided to meet periodically and discuss progress with program implementation. There was concern for seeing that the program was continually focused on proper supervision procedures, and a discussion of common

concerns and strategies was considered useful to all supervisors involved.

Mode of Supervision

This section supports the use of developmental supervision as the mode of operation for the University supervisors. It evolves around Francis Fuller's work with beginning teachers and her "Concerns Theory."

Teacher Concerns as Indicators of Supervision Needs

Francis Fuller and her associates (1969) began working with preservice and beginning teachers in the 1960s in an effort to determine why many education students thought their undergraduate education courses were "worthless." Her studies as well as others (Yamamato et al., 1969; Taylor, 1975) found that young preservice teachers were often not ready to learn materials to which they could not relate. Teaching methodologies and planning techniques were not concerns of preservice teachers because they had not yet experienced a need for the concerns. As her studies continued, Fuller observed a developmental progression of concerns of education students and teachers through three major phases. She identified these phases as Self, Task, and Impact Concerns, respectively.

Fuller found that young teachers who had just finished their undergraduate programs and had little teaching experience were actually not yet concerned about teaching. These teachers did not relate to the specific tasks involved in teaching, so they were unable to anticipate the problems and frustrations they would have. They did have concerns, however, primarily about the self. They were concerned about whether they could succeed in the classroom. They wanted students to perform well, but primarily because of the teachers' needs to experience personal success in their jobs.

After some experience in the classroom teachers were still concerned about themselves. However, they were now concerned with themselves as teachers and their ability to manage the tasks involved in teaching. They had gained some confidence in their ability to succeed in the classroom, and they were now ready to explore alternative teaching strategies and more efficient ways of performing the tasks associated with teaching.

Finally, Fuller found that teachers who had resolved their concerns about themselves and their tasks became concerned with their impact or effect upon students. They were concerned that students were getting what they needed. Teachers were now concerned about individual students and individual learning needs.

At first, teacher educators attempted to take issue with Fuller's suggestion that teachers were not concerned with their impact upon students until after other concerns were met. However, more recent studies by McNergney (1977) and Ingersoll (1975) also supported the hypothesis that teachers' concerns progress through these three phases. Considerable research has been done on the specifications, and progress has been made in measuring them. However very little has been done to suggest specific content from the various disciplines which can help teachers move through the phases more rapidly.

Developmental Supervision

It would seem logical that if a teacher's level of concerns could be readily assessed, a supervisor may more readily anticipate the teacher's perception of the "right amount" of involvement in the decision-making process. Glickman (1981) and Burden (1982) have suggested a contingency model of supervision which is dependent upon which of the

three phases of Fuller's Concerns Theory a teacher is currently in. Each step in the Model allows the teacher more or less involvement in the instructional decision-making process depending upon his/her phase of concerns.

For teachers identified as being in the Self Concerns Phase, Glickman suggested that supervisors should be very directive in nature. Teachers in this phase are looking for experts to help them deal with critical "survival" issues in teaching. Supervisors of teachers in this phase must be pedagogically competent and able to offer suggestions and advice. Directive supervisors should attempt to assess the teaching situation and give sound advice based upon their observations. Teachers in the Self Concerns Phase are most receptive to this style of supervision because they lack the abstract ability to analyze their own teaching performance. They do not yet have the experience base necessary to suggest alternative strategies which may improve their own teaching performance.

Teachers identified as being in the Task Concerns Phase are beginning to feel pedagogically competent in their own right. Glickman suggested a more collaborative approach to supervision of teachers which display this level of concerns. Supervision using the clinical model proposed by Goldhammer et al. (1980) should prove most effective since teachers in this phase are now looking to their supervisors as colleagues who help them make their own decisions instead of having them make the decisions for them. Supervisors of teachers in the Task Concerns Phase must be competent in the use of the various components of the clinical model of supervision. Pre-observation conferencing, proper data collection during observation of the teaching, and proper interpretation and

analysis during the post-observation conference are all critical if rapport is to be maintained with the teacher. A directive supervisor will not have as much success with teachers in this phase because teachers concerned with the tasks of teaching are able to make some observations for themselves. They have an experience base to draw from, and do not respond well to a supervisor who simply assesses a situation and suggests the solution (even if the supervisor is correct in his/her assessment).

Teachers who have reached the final phase in Fuller's Concerns Model (Impact Concerns) should be best supervised in what Glickman described as a non-directive style. During this phase the teachers should be responsible for much of their own development. If the teachers are to benefit at all from supervision, it would perhaps best be administered through "peer evaluation" or some similar means of professional development. It is at this phase that a teacher moves from the ranks of beginning teacher to that of the master teacher. A non-directive supervisor is one who can offer suggestions when asked and otherwise allow the teachers to analyze their own problems.

It was with this literature in mind that members of the faculty in the Department chose developmental supervision as a means of supervising beginning teachers in the program. The Developmental Model of Supervision actually requires a trained supervisor to work with teachers on an individual basis by attempting to give the teacher a level of supervision (directive, collaborative, or non-directive) which is deemed most appropriate based upon the teacher's ability to make decisions concerning instructional improvement. Basically the model is a contingency model which allows the teacher to have more or less control of the decision-

making during the supervision process. The following literature is provided as additional support for the Developmental Supervision Model.

Supervision and Job Satisfaction

Several researchers have attempted to determine how teachers feel about involvement in decision-making and how much or how little supervision should be given from their various support personnel. Alutto and Belasco (1973) pioneered work on the relationship between level of participation in decision-making and teacher job satisfaction. They compared teachers' "actual" and "desired" levels of participation and identified three different conditions: deprivation (too little involvement), saturation (too much involvement), and equilibrium (neither too much nor too little involvement). Test results indicated that teachers in a state of equilibrium were the most satisfied group. Teachers with too little or too much involvement were less satisfied with teaching. Thus, it was concluded that it is more important to offer a teacher what he/she perceives as the right amount of participation than to simply increase participation.

Equally important as the "right amount" of decision-making participation is the kind of decisions the teachers are involved in making. Mohrman et al. (1978) classified decisions into technical (relating to teaching or instructional processes) and managerial (relating to support functions) domains. They found that teachers desired and experienced higher levels of participation in the technical rather than the managerial domain.

Speed (1979) measured the effects on satisfaction of the amount (extent and frequency) as well as the domain of the decision-making power teachers were offered. His findings were consistent with those of

Mohrman et al. (1978); either equilibrium or slight deprivation in either domain or amount of participation in decision-making was correlated with higher levels of job satisfaction than was severe deprivation or over saturation in decision-making. Speed found that teachers' ideal and actual levels of participation were higher in the technical than in the managerial domains. Nevertheless, teachers apparently derived considerable satisfaction from their participation in managerial decision-making. Speed also found that teachers' satisfaction was affected more by how extensively they participated in decision-making than by how frequently they did so.

Further evidence that teachers desire a greater decision-making role in certain areas than in others is provided by Knoop and O'Reilly (1975). They asked teachers how they felt decisions should be made about textbook selection, curriculum planning, and curriculum evaluation. While most teachers felt they should have sole responsibility for selecting textbooks, most favored some sort of shared decision-making in the other areas.

Lowell (1972) studied the relative effectiveness of three different types of decision-making groups: consensus, majority vote, and centralist (leader dominated). He specifically focused on the effect these different decision-making processes would have on the members' attitudes toward the process itself, their willingness to alter their own initial private opinions, and their satisfaction with the group solution.

The consensus groups, with all members sharing power equally, showed the highest level of satisfaction with the group's solution. The members also had highly favorable attitudes toward the process the group followed in reaching its decision, and they were quite willing to change

their opinions in the course of reaching consensus. Teachers in the consensus group were more likely to take the role of synthesizers by helping communication to flow openly and by working to involve all group members in the decision-making process.

Surprisingly, members of the centralist groups, in which decisions were made by the leaders after consulting with group members, also tended to be satisfied with group decisions, positive toward the decision-making process and willing to change their opinions. The apparent reason for this finding is that the centralist group leaders chose to share their power with the group. They worked "collaboratively" by collecting a variety of ideas and then making a decision. The centralist group leaders in Lowell's study actually assumed a role similar to what teachers in the Knoop and O'Reilly (1975) study considered ideal and, therefore, in practice, this ideal role proved highly functional. This group decision process is quite similar to the Developmental Supervision Model which will be discussed later in the review.

The majority vote groups in Lowell's (1972) study were far less successful. Members were less satisfied with group decisions, less willing to change their initial opinions, and less favorable toward the decision-making process. Climate within the groups became competitive and heated.

Collectively the previously mentioned studies constitute endorsement for participative decision making. Such practice appears to enhance quality of the decision, increases job satisfaction and generally improves school climate. Developmental Supervision, as a means of reaching decisions relating to improving classroom teaching, should be most appropriate in dealing with beginning teachers. The Model has a

clearly defined structure, but it allows for a directive, collaborative, or non-directive decision-making process, depending upon the needs of individual teachers.

Criteria of Evaluation

As previously stated, the aims of the beginning teacher supervision program were to help teachers improve classroom performance and to retain qualified teachers in the profession. This section is in support of the selection of the criteria chosen for evaluation. The primary measure of teaching performance selected was "teaching clarity." Job Satisfaction was used as a measure of determining whether a teacher would be likely to remain in the profession and as a secondary measure of teaching performance, since the literature does substantiate a relationship between job satisfaction and classroom performance.

Teaching Clarity as a Measure of Teaching Performance

"Clarity in teaching" is noted as being a desirable trait for any "good teacher." However, as noted by Cruickshank et al. (1978), clear teaching is a concept which is hard to measure. Research by Cruickshank et al. has improved greatly upon the definition of clarity in teaching.

In the early 1970s the aforementioned researchers reviewed numerous studies on the subject. Initial research by Rosenshine and Furst (1971) led Cruickshank et al. (1975) to conclude that clarity was a function of "the beholder," and therefore it seemed logical to ask learners to describe clarity in teaching. Consequently, they developed an open-ended questionnaire which asked learners (1009 junior students in Columbus, Ohio) to recall their "most clear" teacher and list "about five things" that teachers did to make learning easier. The thousands of behaviors

suggested by students were reduced by simple inspection to a list of 110. This list constituted the first recorded attempt to reduce the abstract (high-inference) concept, "teaching clarity," to its lower inference or more specific components. Later these 110 low-inference behaviors were subjectively grouped into 12 intermediate-inference categories of behavior. These categories were labeled as follows:

1. Providing students with feedback or knowledge of how well they are doing makes things more clear;
2. Teaching things in a related step-by-step manner makes things more clear;
3. Orienting and preparing students for what is to follow makes things more clear;
4. Providing students with standards and rules for satisfactory performance makes things more clear;
5. Using a variety of teaching materials makes things more clear;
6. Repeating and stressing directions and difficult points makes things more clear;
7. Demonstrating makes things more clear;
8. Providing practice makes things more clear;
9. Adjusting teaching to the learning and the topic makes things more clear;
10. Providing illustrations and examples makes things more clear;
11. Communicating so that students can understand makes things more clear;
12. Causing students to organize materials in a meaningful way makes things more clear. (Cruickshank et al., 1978, p. 3)

In 1977 Cruickshank and his associates presented the original list of 110 low-inference behaviors to 1510 parochial school students in Cleveland. This time, the researchers used the factor analysis technique to categorize the low-inference behaviors into intermediate-inference categories. The procedure produced eight factors which were labeled as follows:

1. Explaining by using verbal or written examples;
2. Providing for student understanding;
3. Personalizing instruction by using many teaching strategies;
4. Attending to instructional tasks;

5. Demonstrating a high degree of verbal fluency;
6. Synthesizing ideas and demonstrating real-world relevancy;
7. Giving assistance to students in organizing their work; and
8. Use of verbal repetition. (Cruickshank et al., 1978, pp. 4-5)

In an effort to further validate their list of intermediate-inference behaviors associated with clarity in teaching, Cruickshank and his associates replicated their study with 1363 additional junior high students from Ohio, Tennessee, and Sidney and Perth, Australia. Although slight differences in categorization of the low-inference measures resulted from the factor analysis, the intermediate-inference categories remained relatively stable.

Most recently, Hines et al. (1985) studied the relationship of exhibited teacher clarity behaviors to student achievement and satisfaction. Specifically, they have studied the relationships between observed teaching clarity behaviors, students' perceptions of teaching clarity, student achievement, and student satisfaction. Although results are not yet substantiated by replication, the researchers found relatively strong positive correlations among these four variables. Observed teaching clarity appeared to result in increased student achievement ($r=.63$) and student satisfaction ($r=.46$). Further, students' perceptions of teaching clarity were found to strongly correlate with clarity behaviors exhibited by teachers and recorded by trained observers ($r=.70$). Based upon this study, it was concluded that teachers who are identified by students as ones who teach with more "clarity" are more effective in the classroom.

Job Satisfaction and its Relationship to Teacher Performance and Student Learning

The Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study--Phase II, carried out by the California Department of Education, was one component in a long-term study of teacher effectiveness (McDonald et al., 1975) which attempted to explore the factors that affected teacher performance and how teaching performance in turn affected student behavior and student learning. Although Phase II itself was intended to examine the relationship of teacher performance to student learning, the design of the study was such that a number of relationships were explored between teaching performance and other factors. Such factors as teacher aptitudes, job attitudes, knowledge of subject matter being taught, knowledge of teaching methodology, and characteristics of the teaching environment, such as organizational climate, were analyzed.

The study found the largest number of relationships between teaching performance and a group of factors classified as teacher "aptitudes." (Aptitudes were defined as stable habit structures used in a variety of situations for organizing to stimulate student learning. These "aptitudes" were quite similar to those "behaviors" Cruickshank [1975] attributed to clear teaching.) Such factors as verbal flexibility, verbal fluency, reasoning, and memory were related to teaching performance, which required a large number of interactions with students. In other words, teachers had to possess a number of aptitudes and understand when and where to use them to lesser or greater degrees in order to stimulate student learning in a classroom environment.

Other factors which appeared to significantly and positively relate to teacher performance were teacher attitudes toward their job (i.e., job satisfaction), organizational structure, and support given to teachers by

supervisors. (These findings also substantiate findings mentioned earlier regarding teacher satisfaction and supervisional support in decision-making.) As would be expected, teacher knowledge of the subject matter and teacher knowledge of teaching methods also positively related to teaching performance.

Finally, the study specifically analyzed the factors which affected student learning. Student verbal aptitude, student expectations, student attitudes and student behavior patterns were all found to relate to learning. Teacher performance was found to significantly relate to student behavior which in turn was significantly related to learning. A relationship existed between teacher job attitudes and student attitudes, which suggested the importance of teachers having positive attitudes in order to facilitate student learning.

Based upon the previous research it seemed logical to use job satisfaction as a criteria for evaluating the supervision component of the beginning teacher program. Teacher attitudes toward their job have been proven to be linked with teaching performance and, more importantly, to student learning. It was predicted, therefore, that teachers who are more satisfied with their jobs will have more impact upon student learning.

It was also predicted that teachers who were more satisfied with their jobs will stay in the profession longer. While the researcher poses no literature in support of this prediction, it seemed logical that young teachers who leave the profession after only 2-5 years of experience have chosen another profession because they are less satisfied in teaching than they believe they will be in another occupation.

Consideration of Threats to Internal Validity to the Study

This section is in support of the choice of the study design and the need to eliminate the confounding effects of secondary or moderating variables.

One of the main threats to validity of the study was the lack of random sampling. Participants in the supervision program were volunteers. As one analyzes the participants' changes in job satisfaction and teaching clarity over the course of the study, it is necessary to consider numerous other factors which could have accounted for those changes. History, maturation, selection, and morality were some of the possible alternative causes of differences in pre- and post-treatment scores. One of the most common methods of controlling some of the threats is the use of an appropriate research design which allows the researcher to systematically "remove" some possible alternative causes of the changes in the variables chosen for study.

Campbell and Stanley's Nonequivalent Control Group Design was selected for this study (1966, pp. 47-50). This design entails the use of a comparison group of similar teachers which did not receive the treatment. Comparison of post-treatment measures of job satisfaction and teaching clarity between the participants in the program and the group of "non-participants" is considered much better than simply looking at differences in these measures as they relate to program participants before they participated and after they participated. Comparing differences between groups provides a stronger case for the treatment's ability to bring about the change because the members of the comparison group should have had similar experience to teachers in the treatment

group, except for participation in the program. A second threat that may be removed with this design is the possibility that teachers in the comparison group and teachers in the treatment group could have been different with regard to job satisfaction and teaching clarity prior to the study. Use of the control group assumes that both groups (control and comparison) must be as similar as possible in order to evaluate the effectiveness of the program. Pre-treatment measures of job satisfaction and teaching clarity were collected in an effort to mathematically equate teachers in each group (based upon pre-test similarities) prior to analyzing post-treatment differences between the treatment and comparison groups.

Use of this quasi-experimental design removes most of the effects of maturation testing, instrumentation, and mortality. The remaining threat of interactive effects of selection still remains in the study.

School Induction Programs as a Factor Influencing Job Satisfaction and Teaching Clarity

One possible cause for changes in job satisfaction and teaching clarity is the effect of school-sponsored induction programs similar to the program conducted by the Department. A review of the literature describing programs sponsored by local school districts to help "induct" new teachers into their jobs led to the identification of numerous techniques used for this purpose. "Mentor-programs," "peer-evaluation programs" and various types of supervision programs have been developed and incorporated into inservice efforts of many school districts to assist beginning teachers make the transition to the teaching role.

Armstrong (1983) developed a list of items for local school administrators to consider as they plan these induction programs.

Johnson and Ryan (1980) published a summary of research dealing with the beginning teachers from 1930 to the present. Numerous descriptive studies were identified in this summary and abstracts produced descriptions of various efforts on behalf of local schools to induct their teachers into the system.

After reading much of the literature on school induction programs, the researcher developed an instrument intended to identify types of school induction programs in which the teachers in the study have participated, and how effective the programs were seen to have been by the subjects. If one attempts to compare only teachers with similar school induction program experience when looking at job satisfaction and clarity in teaching, it is hoped that a major part of the effect of these school induction programs will be removed from the study. Although the removal of the effect of these "induction programs" will not necessarily mean that differences between treatment and comparison groups with regard to teacher concerns, job satisfaction, and teaching clarity are definitely attributed to the effect of the beginning teacher program, the plausibility of any differences being attributed to the treatment is enhanced.

The school induction program index was used only as a post-treatment measure since it did not seem logical to ask new teachers to appraise programs in which they had not yet participated. A discussion of reliability data based upon the pilot testing and use of the instrument during the study follows in Chapter III.

Teaching Experience as a Factor Influencing Job Satisfaction and Teaching Clarity

Fuller (1969) noted in her research that teachers moved through her three stages of concerns at varying rates of time; however, she found

that the "average teacher" spent 1-2 years in the Self Concerns Stage and 2-3 years in the Task Concerns Stage before progressing into the impact concerns stage. Further, it should be noted that more experienced teachers will probably be recognized by students as being able to teach more clearly simply because they have had some prior experience in teaching. Finally, one could possibly argue, based upon the research conducted by Wright and Tuska (1968), that teachers with prior experience in the profession may also have different job satisfaction scores than inexperienced teachers. For these reasons, the researcher used "years of teaching experience" as a secondary (moderator) independent variable in the study in order to dispel possible threats that may occur as the result of simple maturation and years of previous experience.

Interactive Effects of the Control Variables with Treatment Level

Although appropriate research design allows one to simply remove the effects of secondary variables which could have accounted for differences in job satisfaction and teaching clarity, it is important for program evaluation to consider any possible interactive effects these variables may have had with treatment level. For this reason these variables were included in the hypothesis test, and a complete discussion of their main and interactive effects may be found in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES AND METHODOLOGY

The Sample

Originally 28 beginning vocational agriculture teachers volunteered to participate in the beginning teacher program; however, data from five of these teachers were dropped from the study prior to analysis. One teacher quit teaching during the year; one teacher had students classified as educable mentally retarded and thus clarity data were unable to be collected; and final supervision visits were not made to three teachers until after schools were closed, which again prevented collection of the clarity data. A total of 86 supervision visits was made to teachers. The number of visits per teacher was anywhere from a minimum of two to a maximum of six. A second group of 35 beginning teachers with similar undergraduate backgrounds and similar teaching situations to those in the treatment group was identified to serve as a "comparison group." None of the teachers in the comparison group had ever participated in any university or state department sponsored beginning teacher program. Names and telephone numbers of the comparison group members were obtained from teacher educators in surrounding states. These teachers were believed to have completed similar undergraduate agricultural education programs and were supervised by similar state vocational supervison staffs when compared to Pennsylvania. Each teacher in the comparison group was contacted by phone and asked if he/she would participate in the study. A total of 37 individuals was contacted and 35 agreed to participate. Table 1 contains data for the two groups of teachers in the study with regard to gender, age, number of students per

class, and total years they had taught vocational agriculture. Although slight differences existed, none were deemed large enough to be considered as a threat to the internal validity of the study.

Table 1. Selected Demographic Statistics Describing Teachers Selected for Study.

Variable	Treatment Group		Comparison Group		Entire Sample	
Gender	n	%	n	%	n	%
Male	17	73.9	22	62.9	39	67.2
Female	6	26.1	13	37.1	19	32.8
Age	$\bar{x}$	s.d.	$\bar{x}$	s.d.	$\bar{x}$	s.d.
	26.3	4.1	27.3	3.6	26.9	3.8
Number of Students per Class	$\bar{x}$	s.d.	$\bar{x}$	s.d.	$\bar{x}$	s.d.
	15.7	6.1	12.5	5.8	13.8	6.1
Total Years Taught Vo Ag	$\bar{x}$	s.d.	$\bar{x}$	s.d.	$\bar{x}$	s.d.
	.96	.82	1.1	.82	1.0	.82

The comparison group was selected from programs in surrounding states because a high percentage of the beginning teachers in Pennsylvania (90%) participated in the beginning teacher program, thus making it impossible to select the comparison group from within the state. Therefore, a concerted effort was made to examine both groups of teachers in order to control any existing differences from the study prior to discussing post-treatment results with regard to both dependent variables. Table 2 describes the results of comparing the two groups (by years of teaching experience) with regard to the two dependent variables selected for study. The significant difference described in Table 2 (F=3.433;

df=4, 102; prob=.011) suggests that it was appropriate to use the Nonequivalent Control Group Design described by Campbell and Stanley (1966, pp. 47-50) in an effort to control possible threats to the validity of the study.

Table 2. Pre-Treatment Differences Between Treatment and Comparison Groups by Years of Teaching Experience with Regard to Job Satisfaction and Teaching Clarity.

Group No.*	Group	n	Job Satisfaction $\bar{x}$	Job Satisfaction s.d.	Teaching Clarity $\bar{x}$	Teaching Clarity s.d.
	Treatment					
1	0 yrs. exp.	8	72.62	6.72	79.87	7.88
2	1 yr. exp.	8	68.62	3.30	79.50	6.41
3	2 yrs. exp.	7	68.14	6.36	75.00	11.15
	Comparison					
4	0 yrs. exp.	10	62.80	9.38	75.50	3.50
5	1 yr. exp.	12	70.08	4.76	81.83	3.93
6	2 yrs. exp.	13	71.31	8.57	81.54	5.46
	Entire Sample	58	69.02	7.42	79.26	6.66

$F_{interaction} = 3.443$, df = 4, 102, p. = .011

*Significant differences exist between group numbers 1 and 4, 4 and 5, and 4 and 6 for job satisfaction. Significant differences exist between group numbers 3 and 5, 3 and 6, 4 and 5, and 4 and 6 for teaching clarity.

Design of the Study

A variation of the Nonequivalent Control Group Design as described by Campbell and Stanley (1966, pp. 47-50) was chosen for this study. The Nonequivalent Control Group Design was considered most appropriate for this evaluation because all participants in the program were, in essence, "volunteers," in that they were not required to participate. Further, there was no way that participants in the study could have been randomly

assigned to treatment or non-treatment groups. Figure 2 describes the actual design of the study.

O_1 X O_3 O_5

O_2 O_4 O_6

Explanation of symbols:

- O_1 Pre-treatment scores from the Job Satisfaction Index (JSI) and the Teaching Clarity Index (TCI) for all levels* of the treatment group
- O_2 Pre-treatment scores from the JSI and TCI for all levels* of the comparison group
- O_3 Post-treatment scores for the JSI and TCI for all levels* of the treatment group
- O_4 Post-treatment scores for the JSI And TCI for all levels* of the comparison group
- O_5 Post-treatment measures from the School Induction Program Index (SIPI) for all levels* of the treatment group
- O_6 Post-treatment measures from the SIPI for all levels* of the comparison group
- X the beginning teacher supervision program (treatment)
- -- denotes that there was neither random selection nor random assignment in this (quasi-experimental) design

*levels = years of teaching experience (0, 1, or 2)

Figure 2. Design of the Study.

As described in Figure 2, pre-treatment and post-treatment scores were collected for the Job Satisfaction Index and the Teaching Clarity Index. Pre-treatment scores (Table 2) were used to examine similarity in the treatment group and comparison group as described by Campbell and Stanley (1966, p. 48). Scores from the School Induction Program Index (administered at the end of the school year) were used for similar purposes in an attempt to analyze additional effects with regard to differences due to participation in school-sponsored induction programs. By using these measures in this manner, the hypothesis that the treatment actually "caused" the difference in post-observation measures becomes more plausible, even though it can never be proved.

Instrumentation

Five research instruments were either selected or developed for use in the study. The primary investigation centered around differences between participants in the beginning teacher program and teachers in the comparison group with regard to job satisfaction, as measured by the Brayfield and Rothe Index to Job Satisfaction (Miller, 1977, pp. 368-370), and teaching clarity as measured by an index developed by the researcher based upon findings from previous research conducted by Cruickshank et al. (1975) and Broadbent and Cruickshank (1975). The Brayfield and Rothe Index proposes to measure general job satisfaction. It consists of 18 items, with Likert-like ratings of one to five. Therefore, scores on the index could range from 18-94. Eight of the items were negatively phrased and ten were positively phrased. Therefore, items 3, 4, 6, 8, 11, 14, 16, and 18 (see Appendix A) were recoded prior to data analysis in order to interpret results. The Teaching

Clarity Index proposed to measure student perceptions of their teachers' ability to teach with clarity as defined by Cruickshank et al. (1975). It consisted of 21 items with Likert-like ratings of one to five. Scores on the clarity index, therefore, ranged from 21 to 105. Items 3, 5, 7, 8, 10, 16, and 19 (see Appendix A) were negatively phrased items and were recoded prior to data analysis.

Since there was concern for a threat to the internal validity of the study due to the effect of other programs which may have been sponsored by the teachers' own school systems, a third instrument was used by the researcher in an attempt to study any possible effects of "school induction programs" in which the teachers may have participated. This instrument consisted of two separate measures. The first six items attempted to identify the number of activities which schools offered to their new teachers. Items which were answered "yes" were given a weight of two, while "no" answers were given a value of one. Items 4b and 5a (see Appendix A) were considered negatively phrased items and were recoded prior to analysis. Item three was given the value of "two" if the school had a multi-teacher department and "one" if it was a single-teacher department. This first part of the index was simply coded and summed. It did not constitute a scale; therefore, reliability data were not reported. Scores could range from six to twelve.

The second part of the index attempted to measure teacher perceptions of the effectiveness of their schools' efforts toward induction. It consisted of eleven items with a similar 5-point rating scale as used with the Job Satisfaction Index and Teaching Clarity Index. Scores could therefore range from 11 to 55 (see Appendix A).

Finally, the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (TCQ), an instrument developed by George (1978) which proposes to measure teachers' Self,

Task, and Impact Concerns as they relate to the Concerns Theory, was used as a diagnostic instrument to try and provide University supervisors an indication of which supervision style may be most appropriate to use with each teacher. (Although data from the TCQ were only used for pre-treatment diagnostic purposes, the instrument was administered to all teachers in the study during both pre-treatment and post-treatment phases in order to study reliability of the three scales.)

All instruments, with the exception of the Teaching Clarity Index (TCI), were administered to each participating teacher. The TCI was designed to be administered to students rather than teachers. As Cruickshank et al. (1975), the researcher believed it to be more logical to study students' perceptions of their teachers' ability to teach clearly since they were the persons who observed the teachers most often in the classrooms. The TCI was administered to a group of approximately 15-20 students who were enrolled in each teacher's classes. These students were identified by the teachers using the major criterion that the students not be first-year vocational agriculture students. The instruments were administered to the students by school administrators or University supervisors. The teachers were asked not to administer the questionnaires to their students in order to protect the students' confidentiality.

Pilot Test Reliability

The original instruments designed for use in the study were administered to a group of 23 Pennsylvania vocational agriculture teachers and 88 of their students in an effort to gain initial reliability data. The group of teachers and students was chosen because

of the convenience of their having gathered to participate in a leadership development workshop sponsored in western Pennsylvania.

After the instruments were administered and coded, Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient (cited in Anastasi, 1982, p. 117) was calculated for each scale in order to study the scale's inter-item consistency. Table 3 reports the alpha coefficients for each of the scales respectively.

Table 3. Alpha Coefficients Calculated for Scales Used in the Pilot Testing of the Instrument.

Scale	Calculated Alpha	Number of Cases
Self Concerns	.63	23
Task Concerns	.55	23
Impact Concerns	.77	23
Job Satisfaction	.88	23
School Induction*	.88	23
Teaching Clarity	.84	88

*The calculated alpha coefficient for the School Induction Program Index was based upon responses to the last 11 items on the index. The first 6 items in the index represented a summative score which did not constitute a scale.

Although there is no established "cut-off point" with regard to what is considered an acceptable internal consistency coefficient, the researcher considered anything less than .60 as unacceptable. Therefore, the Task Concerns Scale was re-evaluated in an effort to improve its calculated alpha coefficient. A review of the literature in support of the scales found in the manual for use of the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (George, 1978) suggested that the original developers of the TCQ had also found the Task Scale to be somewhat less reliable (using both alpha coefficients and one-week test-retest coefficients) than the other two scales.

Based on the pilot test data, one particular item dealing with teachers' concerns for instructional materials was creating most of the inter-item inconsistency of the scale. The researcher contacted Dr. George and obtained a complete list of the factors which were analyzed to produce the Task Scale. Three additional items were added to the scale during the pre-testing phase of the study with intentions of reducing the scale again to the five most reliable items after pre-test data were analyzed.

Pre-Test Reliability

After administering the instruments to the treatment and comparison groups during the pre-treatment phase of the study, alpha coefficients were again calculated for each scale. Table 4 reports the alpha coefficients based upon pre-test data. The alpha coefficient for the Task Scale (.66) was calculated after first adding the three new items to the scale, as mentioned earlier during the pilot test reliability discussion.

Table 4. Alpha Coefficients Calculated for Scales Used in the Pre-Test Phase of the Study.*

Scale	Calculated Alpha	Number of Cases
Self Concerns	.67	58
Task Concerns	.66	58
Impact Concerns	.75	58
Job Satisfaction	.85	58
Teaching Clarity	.85	878

*Pre-test reliability was not calculated for the School Induction Program Index because it was not administered as a pre-treatment measure.

The alpha coefficient for the Task Scale indicates that inter-item consistency has improved over that which was reported during the pilot testing of the instruments (.55). The new Task Scale was developed by first adding the three new items, recalculating the inter-item statistics, and systematically reducing the scale back to its five most consistent items. The final scale differed from the one developed by George (1978) by only one item.

Post-Test Reliability

Once the post-treatment data were collected and coded, alpha coefficients were once again calculated for each scale in order to determine the internal consistency of the scales based upon data from the post-treatment analysis. Table 5 reports the results of the analysis.

All post-test reliability coefficients were higher than their pre-test counterparts with the exception of the Task Scale. Again, one of the original items in the scale was not rated consistently with the other items. Item 4 (see Appendix A), dealing with concerns for "non-instructional duties," did not seem to be of major concern to those teachers who were concerned with the other Task Scale items.

Table 5. Alpha Coefficients Calculated for Scales Used in the Post-Test Phase of the Study.

Scale	Calculated Alpha	Number of Cases
Self Concerns	.76	58
Task Concerns	.50	58
Impact Concerns	.84	58
Job Satisfaction	.91	58
School Induction	.76	58
Teaching Clarity	.90	730

Although post-test manipulation of the items on the TCQ could produce a more acceptable alpha coefficient, the researcher felt that further manipulation would merely cloud the results to a greater degree. Since the data from the TCQ were not used in the multivariate hypothesis test, the researcher simply makes note that the Task Scale developed by George for use in the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire had "questionable" reliability based upon the results of this study involving beginning vocational agriculture teachers.

Limitations of the Study

1. Study findings relate only to beginning teachers of vocational agriculture who have been teaching for two years or less.
2. Variables selected for this program evaluation were chosen because they related to the "loosely defined" objective of the beginning teacher program which was to "help teachers perform better in the classroom." Programs with more specific objectives should perhaps look at different variables in order to evaluate effectiveness.
3. The findings discussed in this study are based upon participation in only the teacher supervision component of the total beginning teacher program. Additional effects which may occur as more participants complete other components of the program may account for greater differences. Therefore, results should be considered inconclusive until such time as teachers have completed the entire three-year program.

Data Analysis

Scales of Measurement for the Variables in the Study

Eleven variables were identified for measurement in this study. The dependent variables were (1) post-treatment scores on the Job Satisfaction Index, and (2) post-treatment scores on the Teaching Clarity Index. For purposes of the study, both of these dependent variables were treated as being intervally scaled. The factors (independent variables) were (1) level of treatment group, (2) number of years of teaching experience, and (3, 4) scores on both parts of the School Induction Program Index. For purposes of the study, factor one was treated as a nominally scaled dichotomous variable (participant vs non-participant) and factor two was collapsed into a nominally scaled polychotomous variable (even though it was actually intervally scaled data). Factors three and four were collapsed into three levels each (high, medium, and low) and treated as nominally scaled variables. The covariates (control variables) in the study were (1) the pre-treatment scores on the Job Satisfaction Index, and (2) the pre-treatment scores on the Teaching Clarity Index. As with the dependent variables in the study, the covariates were treated as intervally scaled variables.

Finally, pre-treatment scores on the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire were used for diagnostic purposes only. The TCQ is comprised of three separate 5-item scales proposing to measure Self, Task, and Impact Concerns for teaching.

Statistical Analysis

The multivariate analysis of covariance procedure was used for analysis of the data. Specifically, the multivariate analysis of

covariance as calculated by the subprogram MANOVA in the Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (Nie, 1983) provided by the computational facilities at The Pennsylvania State University (SPSS^{x} release 2.1) was used.

Hypotheses tested analyzed the differences between participants in the beginning teacher supervision program and a comparison group of teachers. The effects of years of teaching experience and the school induction program indices were also analyzed in order to explore possible interactive effects these variables may have with treatment. The alpha level for rejection of the null hypothesis was set at .05.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

Introduction

Post-treatment data were collected from 23 of the original 28 teachers participating in the beginning teacher program and all 35 teachers in the comparison group. Prior to testing the hypotheses, a crosstabulation of the independent variables was analyzed in an effort to better understand the interrelationships which existed among the variables chosen for analysis. Tables 6, 7, and 8 report these interrelationships.

Table 6. Interrelationship of Treatment Level and Years of Teaching Experience in Vocational Agriculture.

	Years of Experience Teaching Vocational Agriculture							
	0		1		2		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Treatment Group	8	34.8	8	34.8	7	30.4	23	100.0
Comparison Group	10	28.6	12	34.3	13	37.1	35	100.0

Chi-square = .355; df = 2; p. = .84

Table 7. Interrelationship of Treatment Level and Number of School-Sponsored Induction Programs.

	Number of School-Sponsored Induction Programs							
	Low (<9)		Medium (9)		High (>9)		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Treatment Group	6	26.1	7	30.4	10	43.5	23	100.0
Comparison Group	7	20.0	13	37.1	15	42.9	35	100.0

Chi-square = .418; df = 2; p. = .81

Table 8. Interrelationship of Treatment Level and Teachers' Level of Perceived Effectiveness of School-Sponsored Induction Activities.

	Perceived Level of Effectiveness							
	Low Score (<28)		Medium Score (29-34)		High Score (>34)		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Treatment Group	4	17.4	8	34.8	11	47.8	23	100.0
Comparison Group	13	37.1	15	42.9	7	20.0	35	100.0

Chi-square = 5.538; df = 2; p. = .06

As indicated in Tables 6, 7, and 8, there was no reason to conclude that significant differences existed between the treatment and control group in regard to years of teaching experience, or either of the school induction program variables.

Findings

The first analysis explored the main and interactive effects of treatment level and years of teaching experience upon job satisfaction and teaching clarity. The null multivariate hypothesis was:

> Ho: Participation in the beginning teacher supervision program and number of years of teaching experience are not related to post-treatment scores on the Job Satisfaction Index and the Teaching Clarity Index when controlling for the effects of pre-treatment scores on both indices.

Table 9 reports the results of this hypothesis test. The multivariate analysis of variance was not significant (F=.675; df=12/98; p.=.771) by the Wilks Lambda criterion. Data in Table 9 indicate no reason to conclude that treatment level or years of teaching experience had any main or interactive effects upon scores for the Job Satisfaction Index or the Teaching Clarity Index. The adjusted mean satisfaction

scores were 68.0 and 67.2 for treatment and comparison groups, respectively. The adjusted clarity scores were 76.2 and 75.1 for treatment and comparison groups, respectively.

Table 9. MANOVA Summary Table for the Effect of Treatment Level and Years of Teaching Experience Upon Post-Treatment Scores for the Job Satisfaction Index and Teaching Clarity Index When Controlling for the Effect of Pre-Treatment Scores on Both Indices.

Source	Adj. SS_{JSI}	Adj. SS_{TCI}	df	F	p
Covariates	2215.55	1612.68	4	19.58	<.001
Model	362.17	55.38	12	.68	.771
Mean	6.20	2.91	2	.11	.899
Treatment	11.41	12.31	2	.22	.801
Yrs. Exp.	122.61	34.55	4	.87	.486
Trtmt. x Yrs. Exp.	232.17	7.65	4	1.07	.376
Error	2633.06	2060.49			

The second analysis explored the main and interactive effects of treatment level and the first part of the School Induction Program Index. This part of the index summed the number of induction activities that schools sponsored for their beginning teachers. The null multivariate hypothesis was:

> H_o: Participation in the beginning teacher supervision program and the number of school-sponsored induction activities are not related to scores on the Job Satisfaction Index and the Teaching Clarity Index when controlling for the effects of pre-treatment scores on both indices.

Table 10 reports the results of this hypothesis test. Again the multivariate test was not significant (F=1.14; df=12/98; p.=.340) by the Wilks Lambda criterion. As with the previous analysis, there were no data in Table 10 which suggested that the number of school-sponsored

induction activities or treatment level had any main or interactive effects upon scores for the Job Satisfaction Index or the Teaching Clarity Index after controlling for pre-treatment scores. The adjusted mean satisfaction scores were 67.5 and 66.7, and the adjusted mean clarity scores were 75.8 and 74.9 for treatment and comparison groups, respectively.

Table 10. MANOVA Summary Table for the Effects of Treatment Level and Scores on the First Part of the School Induction Program Index Upon Post-Treatment Scores on the Job Satisfaction Index and the Teaching Clarity Index When Controlling for the Effects of Pre-Treatment Scores on Both Indices.

Source	Adj. SS_{JSI}	Adj. SS_{TCI}	df	F	p
Covariates	2083.67	1533.48	4	19.94	<.001
Model	233.75	342.62	12	1.14	.340
Mean	4.20	28.56	2	.48	.669
Treatment	8.44	13.59	2	.23	.793
SIPI (pt. 1)	149.22	169.29	4	1.78	.138
Trtmt. x SIPI (pt. 1)	59.27	154.95	4	1.46	.221
Error	2711.48	1773.26			

The final analysis explored the main and interactive effects of the second part of the School Induction Program Index and treatment level upon the dependent variables after controlling for pre-treatment differences. The second part of this index measured teachers' perceptions regarding the effectiveness of school-sponsored induction activities. The null multivariate hypothesis tested was:

> Ho: Participation in the beginning teacher supervision program and teachers' perceptions regarding the effectiveness of school induction activities are not related to scores on the Job Satisfaction Index or Teaching Clarity Index when controlling for the effects of the pre-treatment scores on both indices.

Table 11 reports the results of this analysis. Although the level of significance for the overall model did not reach .05 alpha, it did approach rejection level (F=1.792; df=12/98; p.=.060). However, the explained variance was being accounted for by the main effect of the School Induction Program Index (part 2), and this finding was of little consequence to the study's objective. This index was added to the model to explore the possible interactive effect it may have had with treatment level upon the dependent variables.

Table 11. MANOVA Summary Table for the Effects of Treatment Level and Scores on the Second Part of the School Induction Program Index Upon Post-Treatment Scores on the Job Satisfaction Index and the Teaching Clarity Index When Controlling for the Effects of Pre-Treatment Scores on Both Indices.

Source	Adj. SS_{JSI}	Adj. SS_{TCI}	df	F	p
Covariates	1844.44	1763.27	4	20.63	<.001
Model	872.70	82.77	12	1.79	.060
Mean	22.81	5.01	2	.29	.750
Treatment	13.81	10.81	2	.25	.781
SIPI (pt. 2)	844.81	69.39	4	5.16	.001
Trtmt. x SIPI (pt. 2)	10.48	.75	4	.06	993
Error	2122.53	2022.10			

Nonetheless, Table 12 reports the adjusted means for this main effect. As can be seen in Table 12, the significant difference existed in Job Satisfaction Scores between teachers who had a low perception of the effectiveness of school induction programs and those who had either medium or high perceptions.

Table 12. The Effect of the Level of Perceived Effectiveness of School Induction Programs Upon Post-Treatment Job Satisfaction Index Scores and Teaching Clarity Index Scores When Controlling for Pre-Treatment Scores on Both Indices.

Level of Perceived Effectiveness	n	Adj. x_{JSI}	Adj. x_{TCI}
Low	17	61.53	75.84
Medium	23	69.85	74.31
High	16	69.87	77.02

$F_{SIPI\ (pt.\ 1)} = 5.162$; df = 4/98; p. = .001

As a final point of discussion, it may be interesting to focus on the actual changes in job satisfaction and teaching clarity which occurred with the teachers in an effort to determine if teachers' job satisfaction does indeed decrease over the time period as indicated in previous research (Wright & Tuska, 1968). As mentioned previously, the pre-treatment instruments were administered to participants approximately two to three weeks into the school year. Post-treatment assessment was administered during the last month of the school year. Table 13 reports pre-treatment and (unadjusted) post-treatment mean scores for the Job Satisfaction Index and the Teaching Clarity Index for the entire group of teachers. As reported in Table 13 there was a slight decrease in scores for both indices over the period of one school year. However, this difference was not large enough to suggest that the teachers were currently less satisfied than at the beginning of the school year.

Table 13. Mean Scores for Pre-Treatment and Post-Treatment Job Satisfaction and Teaching Clarity Scales.

Scale n = 58	Pre-Treatment x	Pre-Treatment s.d.	(Unadjusted) Post-Treatment x	(Unadjusted) Post-Treatment s.d.
Job Satisfaction Index	69.0	7.4	67.3	9.7
Teaching Clarity Index	79.3	6.7	75.5	8.5

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Brief Statement of the Problem

There is a concern regarding the qualifications of new teachers. National reports indicate that new teachers are not as well qualified as those who have come before them (Gardner, 1983). As a result of these reports, state departments of education and local school districts are formulating policies regarding how new teachers are to be assessed and/or assisted by local educational administrators. Approaches to these policies vary from precisely stated expectations to broadly conceptualized ways that new teachers can be helped. University teacher education departments are designing post-graduate follow-up programs for teacher education graduates in an effort to assist them in meeting the new state department expectations and to help them adjust to their roles as teachers in public schools.

Along with such programs as are being devised by the teacher education departments comes the need for accountability and evaluation. As new support programs for beginning teachers are developed, every effort must be made to integrate appropriate evaluative stages. Plans should be developed for revising and improving programs which are not having impact upon the clientele.

Beginning teacher programs which involve such costly procedures as individual supervision and extensive travel to and from local schools by teacher educators and state department supervisors must be proven effective in order to justify their existence. Programs which appear to be having no measurable effect upon clientele must be redirected or

discontinued in order to most efficiently utilize the limited supply of funds allocated for helping beginning teachers.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of the individual teacher supervision component of the beginning teacher program conducted by the Department of Agricultural and Extension Education at The Pennsylvania State University. Specifically, the study analyzed differences with regard to measures of job satisfaction and teaching clarity between a group of teachers who participated in the program and a similar group of teachers who did not participate in the program. Secondary or moderator variables also studied, in an attempt to explore their possible interactive effects with treatment level upon job satisfaction and teaching clarity, were years of teaching experience and the effects of school-sponsored induction programs.

To facilitate the purpose of the study, three null multivariate hypotheses were developed:

Ho: Participation in the beginning teacher supervision program and number of years of teaching experience are not related to post-treatment scores on the Job Satisfaction Index and the Teaching Clarity Index when controlling for the effects of pre-treatment scores on both indices.

H_o: Participation in the beginning teacher supervision program and the number of school-sponsored induction activities are not related to scores on the Job Satisfaction Index and the Teching Clarity Index when controlling for the effects of pre-treatment scores on both indices.

Ho: Participation in the beginning teacher supervision program and teachers' perceptions regarding the effectiveness of school induction activities are not related to scores on the Job Satisfaction Index or Teaching Clarity Index when controlling for the effects of the pre-treatment scores on both indices.

A Description of the Beginning Teacher Supervision Program

The aims of the beginning teacher supervision program conducted by the Department of Agricultural and Extension Education at The Pennsylvania State University were to improve teachers' classroom performance and help the teachers become more satisfied with their jobs.

The faculty members in the Department chose to use the Developmental Model of Supervision, proposed by Glickman (1981), to bring about the desired changes in teachers' performance and satisfaction. The Developmental Model relies upon a pre-supervision analysis of teacher concerns in order to develop strategies for the University supervisors to use while working with the teachers. "Teacher concerns profiles," developed from the data gathered after administering the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (George, 1978), were used by supervisors in order to determine how best to supervise the teachers.

After data were analyzed, nine University supervisors were assigned a total of 28 teachers involved in the program. During the 1984-85 school year, the teachers were supervised in the local school classrooms and, following the Developmental Model, strategies for instructional improvement were developed. The number of supervisory visits varied according to the supervisors' perceptions of individual teacher's needs. Generally speaking, younger, less-experienced teachers were visited most often while teachers who had been teaching longer were visited less frequently.

Procedure of the Investigation

Pre-test scores on the Job Satisfaction Index and the Teaching Clarity Index were gathered from 28 teachers who participated in the

beginning teacher supervision program and 35 teachers who were in the comparison group. After pre-test measurement was concluded, the University supervisors began the supervision program and worked with the teachers in the treatment group over a period of one school year. During that time, a total of 86 in-class observation and supervision visits were made to the teachers. The number of visits made to each teacher varied substantially. Some teachers were visited a total of six times, while others were visited only twice. Frequency and length of visits were determined by supervisors as they perceived the needs of each individual teacher. Generally speaking, teachers with the least teaching experience were visited more often while teachers who had taught for a year or longer were visited less often.

Post-treatment scores on the Job Satisfaction Index and the Teaching Clarity Index were collected in late May and early June. Post-treatment scores were collected from 23 of the teachers in the treatment group and all 35 of the teachers in the comparison group. Data on five of the teachers in the treatment group were dropped prior to analysis because of the inability to collect post-treatment data from their students.

Findings and Conclusions

After post-treatment scores were adjusted for pre-treatment differences which existed between the groups, there was no evidence to suggest that post-treatment scores on either the Job Satisfaction Index or the Teaching Clarity Index differed significantly between the teachers in the treatment group and teachers in the comparison group. Further, there was no evidence which suggested that either years of teaching experience or participation in school-sponsored induction programs

interacted with treatment level with regard to its effect upon the scores on the indices. None of the three null hypotheses were rejected using the Wilks Lambda criterion.

Alternative Measure of Program Impact

Although analysis of these data failed to reveal significant differences between the treatment and comparison groups with regard to job satisfaction and teaching clarity, one must always consider the possibility that the program may have had an impact which was not measured. This may be due to error in measurement as a result of invalid instrumentation.

The Brayfield and Rothe Index chosen for use in this study proposed to measure "general" job satisfaction. It is quite possible that there were other "less global" aspects of job satisfaction that teachers in the treatment group may have experienced which the instrument failed to measure. There are aspects of relative satisfaction that may be measured at any given point in time which teachers may have experienced as the result of a particular piece of information gained from instructional supervision. Post-treatment measures administered at the end of a school year would fail to take such satisfaction into account.

The Teaching Clarity Index proposed to measure a teacher's ability to teach clearly as perceived by his/her students. Assuming the instrument does indeed measure clarity, research indicates that clarity is only one of numerous measures of teaching performance which is related to student learning. Time-on-task, teacher enthusiasm, teacher knowledge of subject matter, and organizational management (Cruickshank et al., 1975) are all attributes of teaching performance which could have been measured and analyzed as part of the evaluation.

Finally one must consider the possibility that other moderating variables may impact interactively with treatment level to explain greater differences in job satisfaction and teaching clarity. For example, all the University supervisors were male, and 26 percent of the teachers in the treatment group were female. Although it was not considered during the study, gender may have proven to interact with treatment in explaining additional variance in satisfaction or clarity. School climate may also interact with treatment level. It is logical to predict that good instructional supervision may impact upon teachers who teach in school climates which are conducive to learning, while little or no impact could be found upon teachers who teach in less conducive climates.

Recommendations for Further Study

Based upon the results of this study, the following recommendations for further study are proposed.

1. Additional measures of teaching performance described by Cruickshank et al. (1975) should be considered as possible indicators of program success.
2. Additional factors should be considered as possibly interacting with treatment level to impact upon job satisfaction, teaching clarity, or other measures of teaching performance. Two have been suggested in the previous dicusssion; others could be explored as well.
3. Validity data should be developed for the Teaching Clarity Index. A similar instrument currently being developed by Hines et al. (1985) and the instrument used in this study could logically be incorporated into a multi-trait multi-

method matrix in an effort to develop both divergent and convergent validity as well as additional reliability data on both instruments.

4. Finally, additional research must be conducted in an effort to improve the Task Scale on the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire if its use as a diagnostic instrument to assess supervision needs is continued as a part of the program.

Considerations for Program Improvement

It is appropriate at this time to consider the possibility that the beginning teacher program was not as successful as it could have been with regard to its original aim of improving beginning teachers' teaching performance and job satisfaction. A closer look at what actually took place during the year suggests some improvements in the program itself.

One must question the heterogeneity found to exist in the program with regard to number of of supervision visits and length of time spent actually working with each teacher. As mentioned previously, some teachers were visited only twice during the school year. A portion of time during each of those visits was taken to administer pre-treatment and post-treatment assessments. It is doubtful that those teachers were able to benefit from such limited instructional supervision. Other teachers were visited five and six times during the same year. The opportunity for change was much greater for these teachers. An assumption of the Developmental Model of Supervision is that every teacher can benefit from instructional supervision regardless of his/her years of experience.

It was decided very early in the program that the University supervisiors should meet frequently to discuss supervision strategies and focus attention on common problems. These meetings did not take place.

Along with the responsibility of supervising three or four beginning teachers, each supervisor was expected to carry his normal teaching and advising load in the Department. There was not sufficient time for all faculty involved to hold these meetings.

Although pre-treatment data on each teacher were analyzed, summarized, and shared with the supervisors, use of the data in planning supervision strategies varied. Some supervisors relied heavily on these data while others chose to use their own perceptions of teacher needs. If the data are worth collecting, then the information obtained should be used.

Supervisors differed with regard to the amount of training they had in instructional supervision. Each supervisor had taught vocational agriculture and could identify numerous needs for improvements that teachers should work on. However, supervisors did not necessarily deal with these problems in a Developmental Supervision framework.

Recommendations for Program Development

Based upon these observations and the inability of the study to find any evidence to support the hypothesis that the program had an impact upon the teachers, the following recommendations are offered to those persons responsible for conducting the beginning teacher supervision program.

1. There needs to be a clear delineation of program objectives from which the supervisors may operate.
    a. Specific objectives should identify measurable areas of teaching performance to be focused upon during the program.

b. Seminars and/or workshops for teachers should be designed with these objectives in mind. Teachers should be strongly encouraged to attend these seminars.

c. Program evaluation should reflect these objectives as well, once they have been determined.

2. There needs to be a clearly defined and closely followed delivery system for the program.

a. In light of problems associated with program delivery attributed to supervisors having other responsibilities in the Department, consideration should be given to having one or two faculty members assigned full time to delivering the beginning teacher supervision program.

b. Regardless of the number of faculty participating in the program, a regular time period must be set aside for supervisors to discuss strategies and collectively work on supervision problems.

c. Although graduate assistants should be encouraged to assist with the beginning teacher program, each assistant should have a minimum of 3-6 credits of formal coursework in instructional supervision plus classroom experience in teaching vocational agriculture prior to supervising beginning teachers.

d. Although faculty members are certainly qualified to make recommendations to teachers concerning instructional improvement, consideration should be given to providing additional faculty inservice regarding the various modes of supervision that may be most effective with the majority of young teachers.

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APPENDIX A

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE
COVER LETTERS

THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE UNIVERSITY
102 ARMSBY BUILDING
UNIVERSITY PARK, PENNSYLVANIA 16802

Agricultural Education
814-863-0443

(Cover Letter)
(Teacher Questionnaire)
(Pre-Treatment)

Date

Dear ■:

Attached you will find the questionnaire which we discussed on the phone. You will note that the questionnaire is coded in the upper right hand corner for purposes of identification. As I mentioned on the phone, I assure you that your responses to this questionnaire will be kept in strictest confidence. All data will be handled collectively in an effort to observe group differences only. The coding is used for purposes of matching teacher's data with his/her students' data. Simply complete the questionnaire and return it to me in the pre-paid addressed envelope.

Also you'll recall that I had gotten permission from you to allow ■ to administer a questionnaire to approximately 15 of your students. I have asked ■ to do so in order to protect the confidentiality of your students as they complete the instrument. I would ask that you please remind ■ that the student questionnaires will be arriving at your school addressed to the attention of ■ within a week.

In order to facilitate analysis I need both your questionnaires and the student questionnaires back in 15 days. Thank you very much for your help in this study. Feel free to call me collect in the event of your having questions about the questionnaire or any part of the study.

Sincerely,

Randol G. Waters
Project Director

RGW:dt

Attachment

AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY UNIVERSITY

THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE UNIVERSITY
102 ARMSBY BUILDING
UNIVERSITY PARK, PENNSYLVANIA 16802

Agricultural Education
814-863-0443

(Follow-Up Letter)
(Teacher Questionnaire)
(Pre-Treatment)

Date

Dear R:

Approximately two weeks ago, I mailed a questionnaire to you concerning the evaluation of the beginning teacher program conducted by the Department of Agricultural and Extension Education at The Pennsylvania State University. To date, I have not received your response to the questionnaire.

As indicated at that time, I would greatly appreciate your cooperation in conducting the beginning teacher program evaluation. I am enclosing a second copy of the questionnaire with this note in the event that you have misplaced the previous one. It should take approximately 10 minutes of your time to complete. Please feel free to call me collect if you have any questions concerning the study.

Of course, you may disregard this note if you have recently mailed the first questionnaire to me.

Thank you.

Sincerely,

Randol G. Waters
Project Director

RGW:dt

AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY UNIVERSITY

THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE UNIVERSITY
102 ARMSBY BUILDING
UNIVERSITY PARK, PENNSYLVANIA 16802

Agricultural Education
814-863-0443

(Cover Letter)
(Teacher Questionnaire)
(Post-Treatment)

Date

Dear ■:

The end of the school year is rapidly approaching and it is now time to complete Phase Two of the study. Attached you will find the end-of-year questionnaire I would like you to complete. Although it is slightly longer, you will find it very similar to the questionnaire you completed at the beginning of the school year. I would ask that you not try and think of your previous responses as you complete this questionnaire. Simply complete it based upon your perceptions as they exist today. You need not think long before responding to each item.

Once you complete the questionnaire, simply drop it in the mail using the pre-paid envelope. I would appreciate the return of your questionnaire within 10 days.

I would ask that you also remind ■ that the end-of-year student questionnaires will be coming within the week. Please make arrangements to have ■ administer the questionnaires to the same group of students who completed them earlier.

Thank you very much for your help in this project. If you desire any information about the project once the analysis is done, feel free to call me.

Sincerely,

Randol G. Waters
Project Director

RGW:dt

Enc.

AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY UNIVERSITY

#_____

SECTION I
VO AG TEACHER CONCERNS QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Today's Date: _____

2. Gender (check one): Male ____ Female ____

3. Average number of students you teach per class this year:
_____

4. Total number of years teaching experience prior to this year:
_____

5. Total number of years you've taught vo ag (if different than above): _____

6. Have you ever been employed by any school district other than the one you currently work in? Yes No
If so, where? _____

7. How old are you? _____

DIRECTIONS:

The checklist on the following page is designed to explore what teachers are concerned about at different points in their careers. There are, of course, no right or wrong answers; each person has his or her own concerns.

We consider you to be "concerned" about a thing if you think about it frequently and would like to do something about it personally. You are not concerned about a thing simply because you believe it is important--if it seldom crosses your mind, or you are satisfied with the current state of affairs, do not say you are concerned about it. You may be concerned about problems, but you may also be concerned about opportunities which could be realized. You may be concerned about things you are not currently dealing with, but only if you anticipate dealing with them and frequently think about them from this point of view. In short, you are concerned about it if you often think about it and would like to do something about it.

Read each statement, then ask yourself:

WHEN I THINK ABOUT MY TEACHING, HOW MUCH AM I CONCERNED ABOUT THIS?

1 = Not concerned
2 = A little concerned
3 = Moderately concerned
4 = Very concerned
5 = Extremely concerned

1.	Feeling under pressure too much of the time	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Doing well when a supervisor is present	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Meeting the needs of different kinds of students .	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Too many noninstructional duties	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Diagnosing student learning problems	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Feeling more adequate as a teacher	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Challenging unmotivated students	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Being accepted and respected by professional persons	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Working with too many students each day	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Guiding students toward intellectual and emotional growth	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Whether each student is getting what he/she needs	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Getting a favorable evaluation of my teaching	1	2	3	4	5
13.	The routine and inflexibility of the teaching situation	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Maintaining the appropriate degree of class control	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Clarifying the limits of my authority and responsibility	1	2	3	4	5

Please use the back of this page for any comments or to express additional concerns. Thank you.

SECTION II
JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY

This section of the survey contains 18 statements about your job as a vocational agriculture instructor. Please respond to each of the statements in a manner which best represents your attitude. Again, there are no right or wrong answers. We want your honest opinion on each item. Please check the appropriate box to the right of each item.

SA = Strongly Agree
A = Agree
U = Undecided
D = Disagree
SD = Strongly Disagree

EXAMPLE:

	SA	A	U	D	SD
0. There are some conditions concerning my job that could be improved.				X	

(By marking 'D' you are stating that you disagree with this statement)

	SA	A	U	D	SD
1. My job is like a hobby to me.					
2. My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.					
3. It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs.					
4. I consider my job rather unpleasant.					
5. I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.					
6. I am often bored with my job.					
7. I feel fairly well satisfied with my job.					
8. Most of the time, I have to force myself to go to work.					
9. I am satisfied with my job for the time being.					

		SA	A	U	D	SD
10.	I feel that my job is more interesting than others I could get.	___	___	___	___	___
11.	I definitely dislike my work.	___	___	___	___	___
12.	I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.	___	___	___	___	___
13.	Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	___	___	___	___	___
14.	Each day of work seems like it will never end.	___	___	___	___	___
15.	I like my job better than the average worker does.	___	___	___	___	___
16.	My job is pretty uninteresting.	___	___	___	___	___
17.	I find real enjoyment in my work.	___	___	___	___	___
18.	I am disappointed that I ever took this job.	___	___	___	___	___

SECTION III
SCHOOL INDUCTION PROGRAM INDEX

This last section of the survey is attempting to identify what activities local school districts carry out in order to help new and/or beginning teachers to become at ease in their new working environment. It is also attempting to assess the effectiveness of these activities.

Please be assured that this information is to be used for group analyses only. No names will ever be linked with individual responses and all questionnaires will be destroyed immediately after the group data are collected.

Please respond appropriately to each of the following questions. Please do not leave any questions unanswered.

For each of the following questions, please circle the response that you believe to be most true.

	Please Do Not Write In This Space
1. Do you have another teacher in your building/department that you consider a mentor or someone from whom you can seek advice? A. Yes B. No	1. _____
2. Is there someone in your school who is designated to help new teachers learn daily routine responsibilities such as report filing, record keeping, etc.? A. Yes B. No	2. _____
3. How many vocational agriculture teachers are in your department? _____ (# of teachers)	3. _____
4a. Do you have a designated department head for your vocational agriculture department? A. Yes B. No	4a. _____

Please Do Not Write In This Space

4b. If you do have a designated department head, are you the department head? (If you are in a one-teacher department, answer questions 4a and 4b the same.)

A. Yes
B. No

4b._____

5a. Are you currently teaching a course that you are not certificated to teach?

A. Yes
B. No

5a._____

5b. If so, what is the course?

_____

Please respond appropriately to each of the following questions, using the rating scale to the right of each one. (Put an X on the scale where you think appropriate for each item.)

1. To what extent are you given information about how you might become involved in making decisions concerning changes in your vo ag program and curriculum?

No Information — Sufficient Information
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

2. How often do you have an opportunity to offer input regarding decisions to be made concerning changes in your vo ag program and curriculum?

Never — Always
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

3. Are you given any direction from your administrator with regard to what your role as a teacher in this school should be?

Never Discuss It — Sufficient Info Is Given
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

4. How often does your principal or designated administrator visit your classroom to observe your teaching?

Never — Often
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

5. Do you believe your principal's/ administrator's interest in you reflects "snoopervision" or a sincere interest in trying to help you improve your teaching?

"Snoopervision" — Sincere Interest
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

6. How often does your principal or supervisor set aside meeting time solely for the purpose of helping you with problems you may have as a new teacher?

Never Often
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

7. Are inservice programs ever sponsored by your district which specifically address issues related to new or beginning teachers?

Never Often
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

8. Do you and other teachers in your department and/or district ever share teaching materials with each other?

Never Often
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

9. How often does your school district offer inservice courses which deal with the issue of "quality instruction" and its expected outcomes?

Never Covered Sufficient Coverage
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

10. How often does your school district encourage you to work toward improving your expertise with additional college courses?

Never Often
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

11a. How often does your district pay or reimburse for tuition for courses leading toward permanent certification?

No Payment --partial-- Full Payment
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

11b. In the space below, briefly describe how your district handles payment for these courses.

APPENDIX B

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE
COVER LETTERS
DIRECTIONS READ TO STUDENTS

THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE UNIVERSITY
102 ARMSBY BUILDING
UNIVERSITY PARK, PENNSYLVANIA 16802

Agricultural Education
814-863-0443

(Cover Letter)
(Student Questionnaire)
(Pre-Treatment)

Date

Dear ■:

Enclosed are the questionnaires that ■ asked you to administer to a group of ■ students. Along with the questionnaire you will find a blue sheet which has specific directions that I would ask you to red ALOUD to the students prior to allowing them time to complete the questionnaire.

The reason we are asking you to administer the questionnaires to the students instead of ■ is to protect the confidentiality of the students who participate in the study. All responses will be kept confidential and discussed collectively only. No individual student response will ever be studied.

■ and I have identified a group of ■ students which we would like you to administer this questionnaire to. I would ask that you remember the particular lass you work with because a final phase of the study will require that each student complete a similar questionnaire at the end of the school year.

Please feel free to call me if you have any questions. I would greatly appreciate the return of the questionnaires within 10 days. Simply drop them in the pre-paid envelope and mail them.

Sincerely,

Randol G. Waters
Project Director

RGW:dt

AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY UNIVERSITY

THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE UNIVERSITY
102 ARMSBY BUILDING
UNIVERSITY PARK, PENNSYLVANIA 16802

Agricultural Education
814-863-0443

(Follow-Up Letter)
(Student Questionnaire)
(Pre-Treatment)

Date

Dear [redacted]:

To date, I have not received the questionnaire that [redacted] had asked you to administer to [redacted] students. In the event that you have misplaced the first set, I am sending a duplicate set of questionnaires along with directions for administering them to the students.

I would greatly appreciate your returning them to me within a week to 10 days. If you have any questions concerning the study, feel free to call me.

Of course, you may disregard this note if you have recently mailed the first set of questionnaires.

Sincerely,

Randol G. Waters
Project Director

RGW:dt

Enclosure

AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY UNIVERSITY

THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE UNIVERSITY
102 ARMSBY BUILDING
UNIVERSITY PARK, PENNSYLVANIA 16802

Agricultural Education
814-863-0443

(Cover Letter)
(Student Questionnaire)
(Post-Treatment)

Date

Dear E:

The end of the school year is rapidly approaching and it is now time to complete Phase Two of the study. Enclosed you will find the student questionnaires and directions for administering the questionnaires to the students.

I would ask that you administer these questionnaires to the same class that you administered the first ones to. Although it is not necessary for every student who completed the first questionnaire to complete the second one, I would greatly appreciate your effort in having as many of them as possible complete this final phase.

After administering the questionnaires to the students, collect them and return them to me in the pre-paid envelope.

Thank you very much for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Randol G. Waters
Project Director

RGW:dt

Enc.

AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY UNIVERSITY

DIRECTIONS: TO BE READ ALOUD TO STUDENTS

HELLO. FOR THE NEXT 15 MINUTES OR SO I WOULD LIKE TO GET YOU AND YOUR CLASSMATES TO HELP US FIND OUT SOME IMPORTANT THINGS ABOUT VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURE. THERE ARE CURRENTLY A NUMBER OF PEOPLE WHO ARE TRYING TO FIND OUT WHAT CHARACTERISTICS VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURE TEACHERS HAVE WHICH MAKE THEM SUCCESSFUL IN THE CLASSROOM. IN ORDER TO FIND OUT, WE ARE ASKING MANY VO-AG STUDENTS JUST LIKE YOU TO ANSWER A FEW SHORT QUESTIONS ABOUT THEIR OWN VO-AG TEACHERS. PLEASE DO NOT START ANSWERING THE QUESTIONS UNTIL I TELL YOU TO BEGIN. THERE ARE A FEW THINGS I WANT TO TELL YOU ABOUT THE QUESTIONNAIRE FIRST.

1. THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IS NOT A TEST. THERE ARE NO RIGHT AND WRONG ANSWERS.

2. YOUR NAME OR YOUR TEACHER'S NAME SHOULD NOT APPEAR ANYWHERE ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE. IT IS NOT OUR PURPOSE TO TRY AND EVALUATE YOUR TEACHER. INSTEAD, WE WANT TO GROUP YOUR ANSWERS WITH THE MANY OTHERS WE ARE GATHERING FROM OTHER SCHOOLS AND SEE IF VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURE TEACHERS ACROSS THE COUNTRY HAVE ANYTHING IN COMMON.

3. MOST IMPORTANTLY, PLEASE ANSWER EACH QUESTION AS HONESTLY AS YOU POSSIBLY CAN. REMEMBER, NO ANSWERS WILL EVER BE MATCHED WITH YOU OR YOUR VO-AG TEACHER AS AN INDIVIDUAL. THIS SHOULD NOT BE CONSIDERED AS A CHANCE TO "HELP" OR "HURT" YOUR OWN VO-AG TEACHER.

ONCE YOU HAVE FINISHED ANSWERING THE QUESTIONS, PLEASE RETURN THE QUESTIONNAIRE TO ME AND I WILL SEAL THEM IN AN ENVELOPE AND MAIL THEM. THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP. YOU MAY NOW BEGIN TO ANSWER THE QUESTIONS.

DIRECTIONS: TO BE READ ALOUD TO STUDENTS

EACH OF YOU SHOULD RECALL COMPLETING A QUESTIONNAIRE AT THE BEGINNING OF THE SCHOOL YEAR VERY SIMILAR TO THE ONE IN FRONT OF YOU RIGHT NOW. NOW THAT YOU HAVE BEEN IN THE VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURE CLASS FOR AWHILE, I WOULD LIKE TO HAVE YOU RE-EVALUATE YOUR VO AG TEACHER. THE FORMAT FOR THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IS VERY SIMILAR TO THE ONE YOU COMPLETED EARLIER; HOWEVER, DO NOT TRY TO RECALL HOW YOU ANSWERED QUESTIONS ON THE PREVIOUS QUESTIONNAIRE. SIMPLY ANSWER EACH QUESTION AS YOU FEEL IT SHOULD BE ANSWERED BASED UPON YOUR OPINION RIGHT NOW. BEFORE YOU BEGIN, I WOULD LIKE TO REMIND YOU OF A FEW IMPORTANT THINGS:

1. THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IS NOT A TEST. THERE ARE NO RIGHT AND WRONG ANSWERS.

2. YOUR NAME OR YOUR TEACHER'S NAME SHOULD NOT APPEAR ANYWHERE ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE. IT IS NOT OUR PURPOSE TO TRY AND EVALUATE YOUR TEACHER. INSTEAD, WE WANT TO GROUP YOUR ANSWERS WITH THE MANY OTHERS WE ARE GATHERING FROM OTHER SCHOOLS AND SEE IF VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURE TEACHERS ACROSS THE COUNTRY HAVE ANYTHING IN COMMON.

3. MOST IMPORTANTLY, PLEASE ANSWER EACH QUESTION AS HONESTLY AS YOU POSSIBLY CAN. REMEMBER, NO ANSWERS WILL EVER BE MATCHED WITH YOU OR YOUR VO AG TEACHER AS INDIVIDUALS. THIS SHOULD NOT BE CONSIDERED AS A CHANCE TO "HELP" OR "HURT" YOUR OWN VO AG TEACHER.

ONCE YOU HAVE FINISHED ANSWERING THE QUESTIONS, PLEASE RETURN THE QUESTIONNAIRE TO ME AND I WILL SEAL THEM IN AN ENVELOPE AND MAIL THEM. THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP. YOU MAY NOW BEGIN TO ANSWER THE QUESTIONS.

#_____

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

DIRECTIONS: Please read each of the following 21 statements very carefully. Then check the appropriate box to the right of each statement as it pertains to your vocational agriculture teacher.

KEY: 1 = my vo ag teacher never does this.
2 = my vo ag teacher does this sometime but not often.
3 = my vo ag teacher does this about half of the time.
4 = my vo ag teacher teacher does this most of the time.
5 = my vo ag teacher does this all of the time.

EXAMPLE:

		1	2	3	4	5
0.	When I pass my teacher in the hall, he/she will smile and say hello to me.				X	

(By checking box 4, you believe your teacher does this most of the time.)

		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Before we start a new unit or lesson in class, our vo ag teacher introduces the lesson with an example we can relate to.					
2.	Once we discuss a unit or lesson in class, our vo ag teacher takes us to the shop (or greenhouse or lab) and lets us practice what we've just learned.					
3.	Our vo ag teacher uses big words in class that I don't understand and he/she does not explain what they mean.					
4.	When we are in the shop (or greenhouse or lab), our vo ag teacher will demonstrate what he/she wants us to do before he/she asks us to do it.					
5.	Our vo ag teacher is boring in class.					
6.	When we begin a new unit or lesson, our vo ag teacher will spend ample time explaining what we are going to do and why we are going to do it.					

KEY: 1 = my vo ag teacher never does this.
2 = my vo ag teacher does this sometime but not often.
3 = my vo ag teacher does this about half of the time.
4 = my vo ag teacher teacher does this most of the time.
5 = my vo ag teacher does this all of the time.

---

7. When we go over new material in class, our vo ag teacher jumps from subject to subject so much that it is hard for me to take notes. 1 2 3 4 5

8. Our vo ag teacher uses the same teaching method everyday. 1 2 3 4 5

9. After we finish a unit or lesson and take a test on what we've covered, our vo ag teacher will spend ample time going over the test discussing why the right answers are right and why the wrong answers are wrong. 1 2 3 4 5

10. When we are studying a subject which is complicated, our vo ag teacher will go over the material too rapidly for me to understand. 1 2 3 4 5

11. Our vo ag teacher tells us how we are to be graded in class and we know what is expected of us. 1 2 3 4 5

12. When we cover new material in class, our vo ag teacher repeats it several times until he/she is sure it is completely understood. 1 2 3 4 5

13. If we do not quite finish a unit or lesson on time, our vo ag teacher will re-adjust our schedule so as to finish the unit or lesson before going on. 1 2 3 4 5

14. As we cover material in class, our vo ag teacher will explain something and then give us time to think about what he/she said before moving to the next comment. 1 2 3 4 5

15. When we begin an assignment in the shop (or greenhouse or lab) our vo ag teacher first explains the work to be done and asks us if we have any questions before we begin. 1 2 3 4 5

16. If someone doesn't understand something in class our vo ag teacher will tell the student to get the information from someone who does understand it and then he/she goes on with the lesson. 1 2 3 4 5

KEY: 1 = my vo ag teacher never does this.
2 = my vo ag teacher does this sometime but not often.
3 = my vo ag teacher does this about half of the time.
4 = my vo ag teacher teacher does this most of the time.
5 = my vo ag teacher does this all of the time.

---

17. Before we begin to work on an assignment in class, our vo ag teacher will ask if we know what to do and how to get started. 1 2 3 4 5

18. Our vo ag teacher explains things in a way that we can understand them. 1 2 3 4 5

19. Our vo ag teacher covers material either too fast or too slow (not at an appropriate pace). 1 2 3 4 5

20. When I ask a question in class, our vo ag teacher takes the time to answer the question thoroughly before moving on. 1 2 3 4 5

21. When our vo ag teacher explains difficult things in class, he/she will stress the fact that these things are difficult and tells us why it is important that we learn them. 1 2 3 4 5

PLEASE CIRCLE THE APPROPRIATE ANSWER TO EACH OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ABOUT YOU.

Please do not write in this space

1. My gender (sex) is:
   a. male
   b. female — 1. _____

2. I am in the _____ grade
   a. 8th
   b. 9th
   c. 10th
   d. 11th
   e. 12th — 2. _____

3. I am taking vocational agriculture because:
   a. I am interested in agriculture.
   b. It's an easy grade even though it isn't what I'm interested in. — 3. _____

4. How old are you? _____ — 4. _____

APPENDIX C

SAMPLE TEACHER CONCERNS PROFILE

The Teacher Concerns Profile

Directions for Interpreting the Profile

The teacher concerns profile is based upon the individual teacher's responses to the items on each of the three scales. The graphic display (at the top of the page) is representative of the teacher's standard score based upon normative data from his/her reference group. The highest point on the graph represents the teacher's most obvious area of concerns (either self, task, or impact concerns). Scores from 4-6 on any scale are considered normal. Scores from 2-3 or 7-8 may be worthy of further inquiry. Standard scores of 1 or 9 on the self and task concerns scale may indicate that the individual is having problems in that area. Very high impact concerns (9) may be indicative of unrealistic idealism, while very low impact concerns (1) may indicate that the teacher is not optimistic about the effectiveness of his/her teaching.

Implications of the Profile

Teachers whose most obvious areas of concern are identified as self concerns are in early stages of professional development. They will be looking to their university supervisor for very specific directions and suggestions relating to actual "survival skills" of teaching such as performing well in evaluations, feeling adequate as a teacher, being accepted and respected by professionals, or maintaining classroom control.

Teachers whose concerns lean more toward the task of teaching are beginning to know that they can survive in the classroom and are approaching a competence level which will probably allow a university supervisor to collaborate with the teacher (i.e., clinical supervision) in an effort to help him/her in areas such as choosing appropriate

instructional materials, operating under pressure of normal teaching loads, taking care of non-instructional duties, or working with students in crowded conditions.

Finally, a teacher who has begun to focus upon concerns for his/her impact upon students is probably approaching the level of conpetence typical of master teachers. Although collaborative supervision styles may work well with these teachers, the supervisor will probably find the teacher more willing to direct his/her own improvement in such areas as meeting the needs of different kinds of students, diagnosing student learning problems, challenging unmotivated students, or guiding students towards emotional growth.

In a situation where a teacher appears to have a mixture of concerns, the literature suggests that (just like Maslow's hierarchy) the lower level concerns should be dealt with first before the supervisor can expect the teacher to address higher level concerns.

Choosing a Supervision Style

When choosing your supervisory style to use with a teacher (directive, collaborative, or indirective), it is suggested that you choose one which best addresses the professional concerns of the teacher. A teacher in the self survival stage should respond best to a very directive (almost autocratic) style of supervision. A teacher in the task stage will be looking for suggestions but he/she has to see clearly the need for change before he/she will do so. Clinical supervision, if practiced in a correct manor, should cause the teacher to respond favorably. The data you collect in an observation period should be very useful to you and the teacher as you work together in the post

observation conference.

If you should find a teacher who is predominantly concerned with his/her impact upon students, you should allow the teacher to set the pace as you work together. Offer your assistance in areas you feel you can help but do not autocratically try to suggest changes that the teacher is not going to accept. If you see needs for improvement above and beyond those which the teacher identifies, use a clinical approach to deal with the problem.

Once you have chosen your style of supervision, be consistent as you work with the teacher. In order for you to help the teacher, he/she must trust you as a supervisor. It may take some time to develop rapport between the two of you but until the teacher understands that you are there to help, instead of to just "tack a grade on a course," you cannot be very successful in your task. It has been proven that the most effective supervisors, in bringing about change in a teacher's performance, are those who are consistent and work progressively toward areas of concern that the teacher can deal with.

Finally, I might add that before you begin to work with the teachers, you should look at your own supervisory skills. If you are typically very directive and feel you may have trouble changing from that style, you should try and work on your ability to operate in a developmental supervision framework. From a practical point, it would seem much more logical to ask a university supervisor to adapt to meet the needs of teachers that to ask the teachers to adapt to meet the needs of the supervisors.

RGW/fa/84

NORMATIVE SCORES FOR THE TCQ

(based upon responses from 1109 teachers and principals)

Female Preservice Teachers

Raw Scores			Standard
Self	Task	Impact	Score
5-9	5-6	5-14	1
10-12	7-8	15-17	2
13-14	9-10	18	3
15-16	11-12	19-20	4
17-18	13-14	21-22	5
19-20	15-16	23	6
21	17-18	24	7
22-23	19-20	25	8
24-25	21-25		9

Male Preservice Teachers

Raw Scores			Standard
Self	Task	Impact	Score
5-7	5-6	5-13	1
8-9	7-8	14-15	2
10-12	9-10	16-18	3
13-14	11-12	19	4
15-16	13-14	20-21	5
17	15-16	22	6
18-20	17	23-24	7
21-22	18	25	8
23-25	19-25		9

RGW/
Fa84

Female Inservice Teachers

Raw Scores			Standard
Self	Task	Impact	Score
5-8	5-8	7-14	1
9-10	9-10	15-17	2
11-12	11-12	18	3
13-14	13-15	19-20	4
15-16	16-17	21	5
17-18	18-19	22-23	6
19-20	20-21	24	7
21-22	22-23	25	8
23-25	24-25		9

Male Inservice Teachers

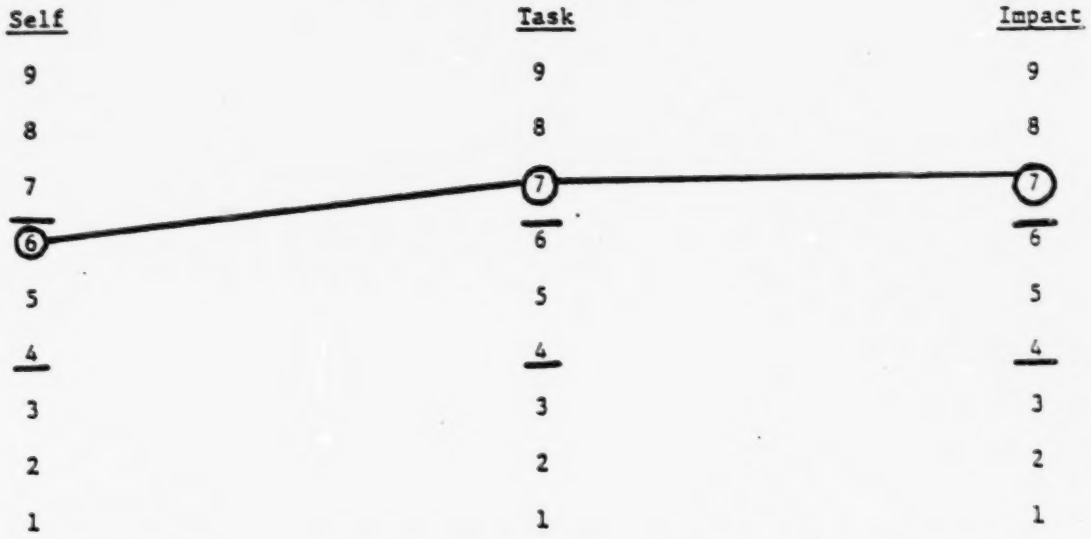
Raw Scores			Standard
Self	Task	Impact	Score
5-6	5	5-12	1
7-8	6-8	13-14	2
9	9-10	15-17	3
10-11	11-12	18-19	4
12-14	13-15	20	5
15-17	16-17	21	6
18-19	18-19	22-23	7
20-22	20-21	24	8
23-25	22-25	25	9

Elementary School Principals

Raw Scores			Standard
Self	Task	Impact	Score
5	5-7	5-13	1
6-8	8	14-17	2
9-10	9-10	18	3
11-12	11-12	19-20	4
13-14	13-14	21	5
15-16	15-17	22-23	6
17	18	24	7
18	19	25	8
19-25	20-25		9

(EXAMPLE 3)

Teacher Concerns Profile



Teacher's Name (2nd year Teacher)

University Supervisor

Reference Group:

___ Preservice females
___ Preservice males
___ Inservice females
X Inservice males
___ Principals

Self		Task		Impact	
item #	response	item #	response	item #	response
2	3	1	4	3	4
6	5	4	5	5	5
8	1	8	4	7	4
12	3	13	2	10	5
14	5	15	3	11	4
Sum:	17	Sum:	18	Sum:	22
Standard Score:	6	Standard Score:	7	Standard Score:	7

Clarity = 77
Jobsat = 68

Comments on the profile of ----------:

--- profile leads me to believe that he is advancing more rapidly than the typical second year teacher. I would think he should respond very well to a clinical approach to supervision. He falls into the upper side of average for both Self and Task scales (based upon the normative responses). He is slightly above average in his Impact concerns which indicates that he is probably optimistic about his ability to perform (although not overly idealistic).

Some things you may want to consider as you plan pre-observation conferences with — are:

1) He is extremely concerned with the fact that he become an adequate teacher.

2) He feels that he is operating under a lot of pressure too much of the time. (Careful not to add to this pressure by giving him a lot of additional work.)

3) He would like help in finding additional instructional materials.

4) He is also concerned with having to perform too many non-instructional duties. (Some observation may indicate a need for time management strategies.)

Above and beyond these concerns you should find — very willing to suggest areas which he would like to focus on. When this happens, try and deal with these concerns while they are salient. Generally speaking, simply follow a typical clinical cycle.

INDIVIDUAL CLARITY SCORES

A Mean Rating of	Means
1	Needs Quite a Bit of Work
2	Needs Some Improvement
3	Average Rating in this Category
4	Pretty Good (Above Average)
5	No Improvement Needed

Teacher _____

Supervisor _____

		$\bar{x}$ Rating
1.	Before we start a new unit or lesson in class, our vo ag teacher introduces the lesson with an example we can relate to.	3.9
2.	Once we discuss a unit or lesson in class, our vo ag teacher takes us to the shop (or greenhouse or lab) and lets us practice what we've just learned.	2.5
3.	Our vo ag teacher uses big words in class that I don't understand and he/she does <u>not</u> explain what they mean.	4.6
4.	When we are in the shop (or greenhouse or lab), our vo ag teacher will demonstrate what he/she wants us to do <u>before</u> he/she asks us to do it.	3.6
5.	Our vo ag teacher is boring in class.	2.6
6.	When we begin a new unit or lesson, our vo ag teacher will spend ample time explaining what we are going to do and why we are going to do it.	3.5
7.	When we go over new material in class, our vo ag teacher jumps from subject to subject so much that it is hard for me to take notes.	4.2
8.	Our vo ag teacher uses the same teaching method every day.	2.9
9.	After we finish a unit or lesson and take a test on what we've covered, our vo ag teacher will spend ample time going over the test discussing why the right answers are right and why the wrong answers are wrong.	4.2

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		$\bar{x}$ Rating
10.	When we are studying a subject which is complicated, our vo ag teacher will go over the material too rapidly for me to understand.	3.4
11.	Our vo ag teacher tells us how we are to be graded in class and we know what is expected of us.	4.7
12.	When we cover new material in class, our vo ag teacher repeats it several times until he/she is sure it is completely understood.	3.7
13.	If we do not quite finish a unit or lesson on time, our vo ag teacher will re-adjust our schedule so as to finish the unit or lesson before going on.	3.2
14.	As we cover material in class, our vo ag teacher will explain something and then give us time to think abut what he/she said before moving to the next comment.	3.2
15.	When we begin an assignment in the shop (or greenhouse or lab) our vo ag teacher first explains the work to be done and asks us if we have any questions before we begin.	4.2
16.	If someone doesn't understand something in class our vo ag teacher will tell the student to get the information from someone who <u>does</u> understand it and then she/she goes on with the lesson.	2.9
17.	Before we begin to work on an assignment in class, our vo ag teacher will ask if we know what to do and how to get started.	4.0
18.	Our vo ag teacher explains things in a way that we can understand them.	4.2
19.	Our vo ag teacher covers material either too fast or too slow (<u>not</u> at an appropriate pace).	3.8
20.	When I ask a question in class, our vo ag teacher takes the time to answer the question thoroughly before moving on.	4.3
21.	When our vo ag teacher explains difficult things in class, he/she will stress the fact that these things are difficult and tells us why it is important that we learn them.	3.8